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CONTENTS

Analysis of Profit Efficiency of Grape Production: A Case of Smallholder Grape Farmers in Dodoma, Tanzania

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to assess the contribution of production and profit efficiency of grapes production from farmers in Dodoma region. However, the study was specifically conducted in Dodoma region at Dodoma municipal council, grape farmers were the focal point of the study. The research used two approaches, quantitative approach and qualitative approach. Through purposive and simple random sampling, four (4) respondents from four villages (one officer in each village) who were government extension service officers were interviewed. Moreover, in this study, a sample of 118 respondents from grape farmers were provided with questionnaire. Data were collected through interviews and questionnaires and the results were analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) program version 20. The results show that grape production contributes a lot to the economics of the household since it increases the income of the household up to a profit of Tsh 667,419 per acre. Therefore, we recommend some strategies which should be used to boost grape production in the country. The strategies include the formation of groups or cooperative agriculture; agricultural experts (such as agricultural extension officers) should establish close relationship with farmers to understand farmers' challenges fully and involve them in obtaining solutions. Finally, simple storage facilities should be provided through collaboration with different partners like individuals, private sectors and government.

Keywords: *Grape Production, Dodoma, Tanzania*

INTRODUCTION

Grape is one of the world's largest fruits crops with approximately 67.5 million tons produced each year. The grape grows best in the Mediterranean-type of climate with long relatively dry summers and mild winters. Worldwide, Grape is mainly meant for wine production, however, a certain portion is dried into raisins and a major part is marketed as fresh fruit, making table grapes one of the world's prominent fresh fruit crops (Khoshroo et al., 2013). According to FAO (2010), approximately 71 per cent of the world's grapes production is used for wine, 27 per cent as fresh fruits and 2 per cent as raisins (dried fruit). On the other hand, the peel of grapes is the source of essential oil and pectin. Also serve as a raw material for the production of cattle feed and in the preparation of candies (Kumar, 2010). Consumption of fresh grapes in the US has increased from 2.9 pounds per person in 1970 to 7.9 pounds in 2009 (ESR, 2009). Moreover, the grape is the most important and economical garden fruit crop in the world (Shahraki, Dahmardeh and Karbasi, 2012).

In 2012 US and Canadian markets, the price for fresh grapes jumped to $1,340 per ton compared to prices that last peaked at $986 per ton in 2006 (NASS, 2013). The major grape-producing countries include China which ranks top position with a production per cent share of 12.8, Italy 11.57 per cent and USA 9.24 per cent, Spain 9.07 per cent and France 8.69 per cent together accounting for 51.42 per cent of total world production (FAO, 2012). In Africa, grapes are produced in many countries, South Africa being the leading country while Tanzania is the second largest producer of grapes in the sub-Sahara. During 2018/2019 the country produces 16,139 tonnes of grapes as reported by the Ministry of Agriculture. In Tanzania, grapes are produced in the Dodoma region (Kulwijira *et al*. 2018), but recent research has shown that the crop can grow well in other regions such as Morogoro, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Tabora, Babati, Bunda and Peramiho. Grapes are among the major fruit crops of economic importance in Tanzania; considered one of the most important cash crops, raw materials and sources of employment. Dodoma is the main region in Tanzania where grapes are grown. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives data, the country produced 16,139 tonnes in the 2018/19 season out of which 11,552 were sold to both domestic and foreign markets. So far there were about 4,810 acres (1,924 ha) under grape production in the region. However, the government production plan is to reach 22,000 tonnes during 2024/25. Grape production is the

mainstay for many farmers in Dodoma Municipal and the nearby districts of Chamwino and Kongwa. The regional data show that Dodoma urban produces 70% while Dodoma rural produces 30% of the grapes (SNV Tanzania a report on fresh fruits, 2005).

The trend of grape production in Dodoma has been increasing over time. For example, the annual yield of grapes in Dodoma Municipal Council rose from 3,576 tons in 2010 to 6,831 tons in 2015 (LWR, 2016). The introduction of smaller and more affordable processors such as HOMCO and UWAZAMAM has given incentives to farmers to produce grapes. As more processing options become available to farmers, production will increase as farmers can respond to the demand which is influenced by the price received. Aside from price, farmers consider many other factors to determine the profitability of grape farming, including production, inputs, transport and labour cost. (LWR, 2016). The grape can be marketed in different utilities like form, time, place and possession which create a wide chance to increase farmers' welfare also it has multiple uses, it can be eaten raw or can be used for making jam, juice, jelly, wine, grape seed extracts, raisins, vinegar and grape seed oil. Regardless of the potentiality of grapes, smallholder grape growers in Tanzania are facing production, processing and marketing problems such as inadequate product quality, few processing plants or winery industry, low price, high cost of inputs, low incentives, low output, unreliable rainfall, insufficient agricultural extension services, late payment, low labour productivity, poor infrastructure and poor harvest management and product grades Ilamba S.Y (2016). As a result, farmers end up having unreliable markets and receive low prices for grapes produced as business firms tend to be price makers and farmers are price takers.

It is possible to attain economies of scale in agriculture by expanding the cultivated area and productivity, there is a noticeable increase in the area cultivated and productivity of grapes in the Dodoma region from the year 2010 to 2015 whereby the area cultivated increased from 892 ha to 1 924 ha while production rose from 5 576 tons to 10 813 tons (SNV, 2005). At the same time, there is no clear statistic of how grape farmers are efficient in using factors of production per unit area as well as profit gained after marketing their products. Sustainable production depends much on production efficiency and profits gained, while most researchers on agriculture focus on how to achieve a certain level of yields (e.g. Nakano, 2010 and Zacharia *et al*, 2013) without considering the need to increase

agricultural productivity through proper utilization of resources. However, few researchers consider rational resource allocation to improve efficiency. This study will measure the technical efficiency of grape production in Dodoma and identify socio-economic factors that determine technical efficiency. Achievement of technical efficiency will facilitate grape farmers to produce their output at a cheap cost while increasing productivity as well as profit margin.

Lwelamira *et al.* (2015) studied grapevine farming and its contribution to household income and welfare of smallholder farmers in Dodoma which involved a total sample size of 252 respondents. The results showed that grape farming contributes more than 35.6 per cent which is more than one-third of total household income and plays an important role in household welfare, also study identify several challenges facing grape growers which include the low price of grapes, high costs of inputs, limited access to market, the prevalence of pests and diseases, inadequate storage facilities and limited access to quality seedlings. Kalimang`asi *et al* (2014) in his study found that smallholder female farmers were more efficient they produced 2000Kg/1.60 acre than males who produced 1480Kg/1.72Acre, Moreover, results indicated that unmarried smallholders were more efficient (2000kg/1.00acre) compared to married ones who produced 1590 kg/1.75acre. Also, the youngest farmers had the largest grape output (average 2170kg/1.33 acre) compared to elders (1540 kg/1.75 acre). The study revealed that grape production was mostly practised by people with low education levels and each smallholder grape producer sold an average of 1530 kg per year which accounts for 91.4 per cent of market share. The major challenges faced by smallholder grape producers were the decline of the quality of grape due to delayed payment, diseases and unreliable markets.

Njiku *et al.* (2018) researched determinants of technical efficiency and factors contributing to the inefficiency of small-scale sunflower oil processing firms in Tanzania by using a panel design of three years of data with 219 sample size. Results revealed that 75 per cent of the firms operate under capacity with steadily declining technical efficiency, as well as Capital and factors input of production, contributed statistically significantly to the output of the firms under the study. Firm age, location, ownership type, age and education of the owner were found significant determinants of technical efficiency in sunflower oil processing firms in Tanzania. Ibrahim *et al*. (2014) conducted a study in Nigeria on the

relationship between input use and inefficiency in maize production, the respondents were surveyed and data on inputs used, cost of production and yields were obtained. The stochastic frontier production function was used to analyze data. The findings revealed that there is technical inefficiency in the use of inputs and certain socio-economic factors contribute to inefficiency.

Asela, (2017) conducted research on technical efficiency by comparing the production efficiency of maize crops among smallholder farmers in Tabora and Ruvuma regions respectively, using maximum likelihood estimation and ordinary least square on the Cobb-Douglas production function and OLS on technical inefficiency model. Findings indicated that Tabora smallholder farmers were more technically efficient with mean technical efficiency of 61 per cent compared to 53 per cent of Ruvuma farmers. Farm size was the most important factor that increased maize output and Tractor assets were the most optimal used factor keeping other factors constant, in both regions. From the technical inefficiency model variable age, household size, primary education and inputs costs increased technical inefficiency while credit access, capital assets, good living condition and crop farming as main activities increased technical efficiency in both regions.

Paudel and Matsuoka (2009) conducted a study to estimate the cost efficiency of 180 maize farmers in Nepal by using the stochastic frontier model. Among other parameters cost of manure, labour, tractor, animal power, fertilizer, pesticides and seeds were used. The maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters reveal positive except for pesticides while the average cost obtained from the cost function showed cost efficiency of 1.634 which indicates that the average maize farms incurred 63% cost above the frontier which is inefficiency. Hidayah *et al*. (2013) studied a production and cost efficiency analysis of the paddy farming system in Indonesia by using a frontier stochastic approach to determine the level of production and cost efficiency with Integrated Plant and Resources Management, maximum likelihood method was used to estimate the parameters. One hundred and twenty was the total number of respondents obtained by using simple random sampling methods. The findings revealed that the variation of the error term in both models was highly influenced by inefficiency factors (production 0.933 and cost 0.948) rather than stochastic factors, while the average technical and cost efficiency was 0.855 and 0.86 respectively. The stochastic Frontier

production function was used to measure and compare production frontiers and technical efficiencies of rice production in India and Thailand, the results revealed that all inputs had shown positive relations with output but such factors as seeds and pesticides indicated negative effects for both India and Thailand on rice output. Technical efficiency score increased in India from 0.87 in year 2002 to 0.98 in 2014 while in Thailand TE decreased from 0.96 to 0.94 during the same time (Sirikanchanarak *et al.*2017).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of the study will be based on production theory. The approach assumes that a set of independent variables are responsible for influencing the situation and behavior of economic agents in a given firm, where policy factors have an important influence on grape productivity since they affect all the other factors. Institutional factors affect production factors whereby some institutional and socio-economic factors tend to reinforce each other. For example, the female gender influences access to credit which influences off-farm income. Factors of production are used directly in the production process but the availability and distribution of these inputs is affected by policy which in turn affects grape productivity. Institutional and socio-economic factors influence grape productivity, like farmer groups, credit access and presence extension services. All these were expected to have a positive effect on productivity. Meanwhile, a factor like age, education and lack of experience is expected to have a negative effect.
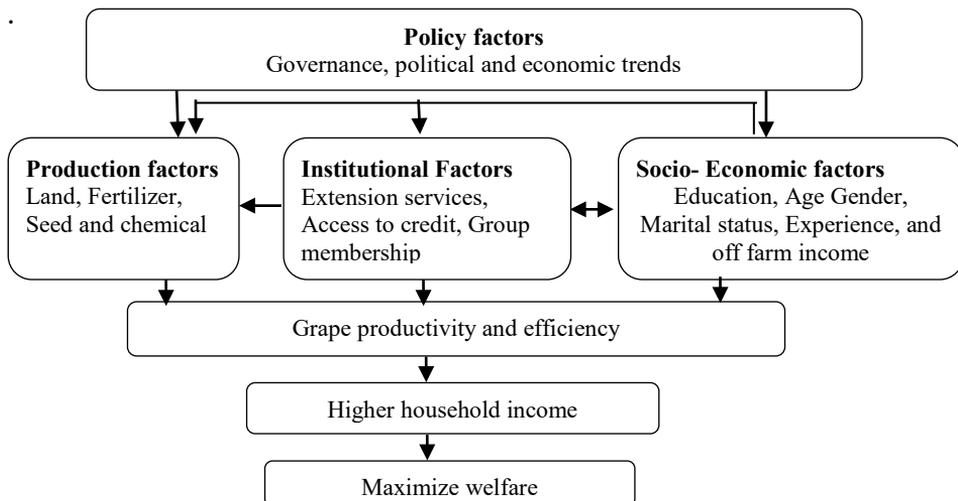
Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

METHODOLOGY

This study was carried out in the Dodoma Urban district of the Dodoma region. This study used two sampling designs, which are purposive sampling and simple random. Purposive sampling is the act of choosing individuals as a sample from the relevant population to produce targeted information. This study used purposive sampling to select one extension service officer from each village (for four villages) and they are selected because they have skills in grape production. Simple random sampling Kothari (2004) defines simple random sampling as a method of sample selection which gives each possible sample combination an equal probability of being picked up and each item in the entire population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Kothari explains that once an item is selected for the sample it cannot appear in the sample again. This study used simple random sampling to select four villages (Mpunguzi, Mpunguzi A, Mpunguzi B and Matumbulu) from two wards and three villages provide 30 representatives from each village while one village has only 28 farmers to constitute a sample size of 118. The choices of the study area were based on the grape production potential within the district. Moreover, the study used Microsoft Excel for data analysis on editing, coding, classification and tabulation of facts from filled questionnaires by respondents and from interviewing specific participants of the same population. The major tool of analysis used in this study was based on the stochastic frontier model as proposed by (Battese and Coelli, 1995). Farrell, (1957) was the first scholar to use the frontier production function to measure technical efficiency. The method involves estimating a frontier production function to measure technical efficiency. The frontier production function model is estimated using the maximum likelihood procedure because it considers being asymptotically more efficient than the corrected ordinary least square estimators (Coelli, 1995). The stochastic frontier production function model is specified as presented in the equation (1):

$$Yi = f (Xi, \beta) + (Vi - Ui) \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots 1$$

Where:
Y_i is the output of the ith farm,
X_i is a 1 x k vector of input quantities of the ith farm,
β - is a vector of unknown parameters to be estimated,

V_i - Are random which are assumed to be normally distributed iiN $(0, \delta_v^2)$ random error and independent of the U_i. It is assumed to account for measurement error and other factors not under the control of the farmer (non-negative random variable).

U_i - Are non-negative random variables, (half normal or truncated to zero) called technical inefficiency effects (Aigner *et al.*, 1977).

Analysis tools of this study are based on stochastic frontier model which are explained by estimating the frontier production and cost function to measure technical and cost efficiency separate (Battese and Coelli, 1995). The frontier production function model is estimated by using maximum likelihood procedure (MLE). The stochastic frontier production function on this study is specified for cross sectional data whose error term complies with two components, random effect and technical inefficiency. The model used was expressed as presented in equation (2),

$$Y_i = f(X_i\beta) + (V_i - U_i) \dots\dots\dots\dots 2$$

Where,
Y_i = quantities of grape output
X_i \= vector of grape input quantity,
β = a vector of parameters,
ε = error term, defines as $= V_i - U_i$
V_i – error due to random effect
U_i – error due to inefficiency

Production and cost inefficiency were expressed by U_i, which cause firm to operate below stochastic frontier, Stochastic frontier cost function error term specified as $(V_i + U_i)$. Expression for stochastic cost frontier function as shown in equation (3)

$$C_i = C(Y_i, P_i; \beta) + V_i + U_i \dots\dots\dots\dots 3$$

Where:
C_i is the total production cost,
P_i is the vector of variable input price
Y_i, is the grape output produced in kg,
β - is a vector of unknown parameters to be estimated,

V_i are random disturbance costs due to the factor's outsides the farmers
U_i - Are non-negative random variables, (half normal or truncated to zero) also define how far did firm operate above the frontier, especially for the frontier cost function

The stochastic production frontier was estimated to find the TE of each respondent. Technical efficiency was expressed as the ratio involving observed production and the production output from the frontier production function (equation 4).

$$TE_i = \frac{Y_i}{\exp(X_i\beta + V_i)} = \frac{\exp(X_i\beta + V_i - U)}{\exp(X_i\beta + V_i)} = \exp(-\mu) \dots\dots\dots 4$$

Where $0 < TE_i < 1$

Computed TE of each grape farmer was regressed against a set of socio-economic and institutional factors to identify the factors affecting grape production. Farell, (1957) defines TE as the ratio of the observed output to the actual output along the frontier, as estimated from the composed error term and then the production function was used to define the stochastic production. The Cobb-Douglas production function estimation using MLE method is represented as in equation (5):

$$LnY_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \, lnX_{1i} + \beta_2 \, lnX_{2i} + \beta_3 lnX_{3i} + \beta_4 lnX_{4i} + \beta_5 \, lnX_5 + V_i - U_i \dots 5$$

Where:
Y = Grape output of the respondents measured in Kg
X_1 = Farm size (acre),
X_2 = family and hired labour (man-day),
X_3 = Grape seeds (kg),
X4 = Fertilizer (kg),
X5= Pesticide (mls)
$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5$ = are Parameters to be estimated

The inefficiency model is represented by U_i which is defined as in equation (6):

$$U_i = d_0 + d_1z_1 + d_2z_2 + d_3z_3 + d_4z_4 + \dots + d_nz_n \dots\dots\dots 6$$

U_i = Technical inefficiency,

z_1 = Age (years), z_2 = Access to extension services (Yes = 1, No = 0), z_3 =Level of education (years), z_4 = Access to credit (Yes = 1, No = 0), z_5= Subsidies (Yes=1, No=0), z_{6} = off farm income (Tsh), z_7= farm size, d_0, d_1, d_2, ……d_n = Parameters to be estimated.

The stochastic cost frontier was estimated to find the CE of each respondent. Then, the computed CE of each grape farmers were regressed against a set of socio-economic and institutional factors to identify the factors affecting grape production. Farell, (1957). Measurement formula for cost efficiency expressed in equation (7)

$$CE_i = \frac{C(Y_{i,}P_{i;}\beta)\exp\{U_i\}}{C_i} \qquad \text{..} 7$$

Where, CE_i is the possible minimum cost ratio with specific inefficiency level toward actual total cost. When $C_i = C (P_i Y_i;\beta).exp(U_i)$, the CE_i was equal to 1 which implys farming system is in the full efficiency condition in the time *i*. Otherwise, when the actual cost bigger than the minimum estimated cost ($0 \leq CE_i < 1$) the farming system are inefficient.

In order to obtain sources of cost inefficient computed CE for each grape farmer was regressed against a set of socio-economic and institutional factors to identify the factors affecting grape production as presented in equation (8).

$$LnY_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1\, lnX_{1i} + \beta_2\, lnX_{2i} + \beta_3 lnX_{3i} + \beta_4 lnX_{4i} + \beta_5\, lnX_5 + Vi + U_i \text{.......} 8$$

Where:
Y = Grape Output
β_0 = Intercept, β_{1} = (i= 1, 2, …5) Parameters to be estimated
X_1 = Cost of hire land/acre,
X_2 =Labour cost/ acre,
X_3 = Grape seeds cost/kg,
X_4 = Fertilizer cost/kg,
X_5= Pesticide (cost/botle)

The inefficiency model is represented by U_i which is defined as expressed in equation (9):

$$U_i = d_0 + d_1 z_1 + d_2 z_2 + d_3 z_3 + d_4 z_4 + \dots + d_n z_n \text{.................................} 9$$

Where

U_i = Technical inefficiency,

z_1 = Age (years),

z_2 = Access to extension services,

z_3 = Level of education

z_4 = Access to credit

z_5 = Subsidies

z_6 = off farm income (Tsh)

z_7 = Farm size

$d_0, d_1, d_2, \ldots\ldots d_n$ are Parameters to be estimated.

To address the determining levels of profit of grape farmers in Dodoma region Gross Margin (GM) Analysis method were used. The GM method is used in this study because it does not consider land value. The GM was expressed as shown in equation (10).

$$GM = \frac{Total\,revenue(TR) - Total\,Variable\cos t(TVC)}{Total\,revenue(TR)} \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ 10$$

FINDINGS
Socio-economic description of grape farmers in Dodoma region
Respondent means age for female's lies between 15 to 35 age group and for males, it lies between 36 and 55 age group. This shows the importance of grape production in the area since the majority of participants lie between the low and middle-age groups and most of them are capable farmers and still energetic enough to engage themselves in grape production. Mulashani (2016), declared the importance of age as the factor that can explain the level of production and efficiency, and it is thought that the young population is more productive than the older population. Furthermore, findings indicated that only a few people above 56 years of age were engaged in grape farming activities among the selected sample. Based on gender most females participating in production aged between 15 and 55 (41.5 per cent), while males ranged between 15 and 55 (44.4 per cent). This gives a clear picture that male farmers are more involved in grape production than their female counterparts. Also, the findings show that males at the age of 36 to 55 depend on grape production at 26.3 per cent while females who engage more in 15 to 35 of ages taking 22 per cent (Table 1).

Table 1: Age and sex of respondents (N= 118)

Age group	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
15-35	26	22	19	16.1	45	38.1
36-55	23	19.5	31.	26.3	54	45.8
56-75	9	7.6	6	5.1	15	12.7
76≤	2	1.7	2	1.7	4	3.4
Total	60	50.8	58	49.2	118	100

Source: Field data 2019

The more the farmers are involved in grape production the more their knowledge and efficiency are increased in grape production. The findings in Table 2 show that the number of male-headed households is greater than that of female-headed households. In the study area, 63.6 per cent of male-headed households were engaged in grape production while female-headed households comprised 36.4 per cent; this means that most of the grape farmers are male-headed households implying that most of the resource controllers and decision-makers in the family are men. Conversely, this shows that for male-headed family's grape production is given more priority than female headed families.

Table 2: Status of household head (N= 118)

Village	Female headed		Male headed		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Mpunguzi A	14	11.9	17	14.4	31	26.3
Mpunguzi B	15	12.7	19	16.1	34	28.8
Mpunguzi	9	7.6	17	14.4	26	22
Matumbulu	5	4.2	22	18.6	27	22.9
Total	43	36.4	75	63.6	118	100

Source: Field data 2019

Based on logic, educated farmers are expected to have more production compared to uneducated farmers. This is because new technology and techniques in production are easily adopted by farmers with education. From the descriptive statistics of the study, 11 per cent of the farmers are uneducated, 60.2 per cent with a primary level of education, 25.4 per cent with a secondary level, and 3.4 per cent with university level. Table 3 shows that farmers with primary education and secondary education are involved in grape production, followed by uneducated farmers while farmers with university education were very few. In the study, only two villages (Mpunguzi B and Matumbulu) were found with grape farmers with university education. Thus, the results show that grape production

was practised mostly by lowly educated farmers and farmers with higher education were not effectively engaged in grape production (Table 3). This would entail that the higher the level of education, the lower the involvement in agricultural activities. However, this does not preclude the fact that the number of university graduates living in the study area was generally small compared to the number of people with secondary and primary education.

Table 3: Education of household head (N= 118)

	Level of Education				Total
	None (%)	Primary (%)	Secondary (%)	University (%)	(%)
Mpunguzi A	5.1	14.4	6.8	0.0	26.3
Mpunguzi B	0.8	14.4	11.9	1.7	28.8
Mpunguzi	5.1	15.3	1.7	0.0	22.0
Matumbulu	0.0	16.1	5.1	1.7	22.9
Total	11.0	60.2	25.4	3.4	100

Source: Field data 2019

Potential crops in the study area
The study area is found in the central plateau zone which is famous for the production of fruits. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security- Horticulture unit, (2005) fruits such as Baobab, Mango, Papaya, Guava and Grapes were found in Dodoma region. According to this study, (Table 4) crops like Ground nuts, Maize, Sunflower, Bambara nuts, Millet, Sesame, and Tomato were found in a different study area. Grape production is the leading crop in the villages under study followed by groundnuts, Tomato and Maize. Sunflowers and other crops are produced on small scale.

Table 4: Potential crop in the area (N=118)

	Village of respondent				Total
Crops	Mpunguzi A	Mpunguzi B	Mpunguzi	Matumbulu	
Ground nuts	22 (6.8%)	14 (4.3%)	16 (4.9%)	10 (3.1%)	62 (19.1%)
Maize	1 (0.3%)	25 (7.7%)	14 (4.3%)	9 (2.8%)	49 (15.1%)
Sunflower		7 (2.2%)	15 (4.6%)	1 (0.3%)	23 (7.1%)
Grape	31 (9.6%)	33 (10.2%)	21 (6.5%)	26 (8.0%)	111 (34.3%)
Potato		12 (3.7%)		3 (0.9%)	15 (4.6%)
Tomato	29 (9.0%)	6 (1.9%)	1 (0.3%)	18 (5.6%)	54 (16.7%)
Sesame	1 (0.3%)				1 (0.3%)
Millet			1 (0.3%)		1 (0.3%)
Bambara Nuts	0 9 (0.0%)	1 (0.3%)	7 (2.2%)		8 (2.5%)
Total	84 (25.9%)	98 (30.2%)	75 (23.1%)	67 (20.7%)	324 (100.0%)

Source: Field data 2019

Technical efficiency and factor influencing grape production

Partial elasticity generated from stochastic production frontier shows that area (0.193), fertilizer (-0.221), pesticide (0.447), Labour (0.169) coefficients are positive which explain that if these inputs increased by ten output will increase by 1.9, 4.4, and 1.7 per cent for input area, pesticide and labour respectively. On the other hand, input fertilizer shows negative sign implying that, once this input is increased by ten percent, output will decrease by 2.2 per cent, this can be due to high fertilizer/ FYM usage during grape production which makes land saturated with this input. These results are consistent with those of Bachewe *et al.,* (2011) who found fertilizer to have a negative effect on yields, advanced by the arguement that the rate of fertilizer application must be accompanied by the right and sufficient use of complimentary inputs such as water and improved seeds to achieve the desired results which are not practiced by many farmers in Dodoma region.

For the variables which determine source of inefficiency, price (-0.765), extension (-0.122) and experience (-0.351) have positive relationship with output or influence technical efficiency. A ten per cent increase of these variables will increase output by 7.66, 1.22 and 3.51 per cent respectively. Price is the most influential variable compared to all variables used in this study; this is due to the fact that most farmers tend to adjust themselves according to their expectations of price change. According to table 5 the coefficient function of MLE estimation is 0.588 which explains that the stochastic production frontier function has the characteristic of decreasing return to scale. It means that the increased use of inputs proportionally will decrease the output production to achieve the maximum profit.

Moreover, the value of γ is 0.99 and significant at the level of 1%. This value shows that 99% of the random errors are mostly influenced by inefficient factor, nor the stochastic variables which is not considered in the model. Therefore, production frontier can possibly be achieved by improving on farming system management. The value of γ which is approaching 1 also remains one side error, where U_i dominated the symmetry error distribution from V_i. The explanations of one side error also strengthens by the value of likelihood ratio. As shown in table 6, the value of observed LR is 19.94 which is greater than the given LR ($\chi 1^2 = 3.841$). Since the observed LR is greater than the given LR, we can conclude that the assumption that all of the grape farming system which is practiced by farmers in Dodoma Region is 100% efficient.

The Grape industry depends on many variables which are used during production, but among all the variables there are five influential variables which all grape sector depends on, for efficiency model variable. These variables are price of pesticide (0.445), and area (0.193) and for the inefficiency model variable grape sector is determined by agricultural extension work price (-0.764), (-0.123) and experience of the farmers (-0.351). The base of grape production observed on price elasticity, if price per kg of grape changes positively grape output will change by more than 76 per cent. In order for grape sector to keep growing these five variables should be well observed, but variables such as fertilizer (FYM), seems to have negative influence on production; this can be caused by much amount of fertilizer applied by other farmers than recommended rate of FYM application.

Table 5: Technical efficiency (N=118)

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	t-ratio
Efficiency model			
β_0	3.7984918	0.12286504	30.915968
$\beta_{1\ (Area)}$	0.19278569	0.12476581	1.5451804**
$\beta_{2\ (Fertilizer)}$	-0.22081819	0.30056219	-0.73468388**
$\beta_{3\ (\ pesticide)}$	0.44662340	0.10521648	4.2448047***
$\beta_{4\ (\ Labour)}$	0.16897572	0.14840781	1.1385905*
Inefficiency model			
$Z_{1\ (\ price)}$	-0.76452720	0.22038531	-0.34690479**
$Z_{2(\ Education)}$	0.31464961	0.43382102	0.72529821**
$Z_{3\ (\ Extension)}$	-0.12180490	0.17884876	-0.68104970*
$Z_{4\ (Age)}$	0.53681801	0.35412952	1.5158804
$Z_{5\ (Experience)}$	-0.35106772	0.27713321	-1.2667833***
$z_{6\ (Irrigation)}$	0.12970412	0.20183063	0.64263841
sigma-squared	0.20346865	0.62482762	0.32563965
Gamma	0.99999999	0.40046495	0.24970974
log likelihood function	-0.34789606E+02		
LR test of the one-sided error	19.941618E+02		

*= significant at 5%; **= significant at 10% and ***=significant at 1%.

A negative sign of the inefficiency parameter function means the associated variable has a positive effect on technical efficiency and vice versa.

Farmer's efficiency specific score
According to table 6, The Average technical efficiency of stochastic production frontier model is 0.57 with minimum value of 0.21 and maximum value of 0.99, the minimum value shows the most inefficient

farmers and maximum value shows the most efficient farmers. Average efficiency of 0.57 signifies that all farmers has the room to increase TE by 0.43 per cent while for inefficiency farmer they have a chance to increase efficiency production by 0.79 per cent and maximum efficiency farmers has a chance to increase by only 1 per cent.

Table 6: Technical efficiency distribution of Grape farming (N=118)

Efficiency range	Frequency	Frequency %	Cum Fre %
0.20-0.39	28	23.73	23.73
0.40-0.59	38	32.20	55.93
0.60-0.79	37	31.36	87.29
0.80-1.00	15	12.71	100
Total	118	100	

Source: Field data 2019

Gross margin of grapes farmers

Most of grape production in Dodoma region is done by smallholder farmers and most of it is produced in their own farm. The majority of grape producer's own land of an average size 1.9 acres with average production of 1280 kg per acre. Table 7 shows household cost incurred during grape production per acre/year. Smallholder farmers incur different cost starting from land preparation up to harvesting in which they use different types labour forces like family, hire or both hired and family labour. In average grape industries use both variables and fixed input like land and FYM among many inputs. The results reveal that the grape industry earns profit of Tzs 667,419.00 per acre which expend the production cost of Tzs 831,000.00.

Table 7: Cost analysis of grape production (N=118)

				Income
Production: 1280.7 kg x1170				**1,498,419.00**
				COST
Variable	**Cost**	**Labour**	**Cost**	
Land preparation		Both (Family & hired)	750000	
Cultivation		Both (Family & hired)	130000	
FYM	145000	Both (Family & hired)	20000	
Planting		Both (Family & hired)	180000	
Pesticide	50,000	Family	25000	
Weeding		Both (Family & hired)	128,000	
Harvesting		Family	78000	
Total cost	**195,000**		**636,000**	**1,498,419.00**
Gross Margin				**667,419.00**

Source: Field data 2019

DISCUSSION

This study assessed the economic analysis of grape production in Tanzania a case of the Dodoma municipal council and the obtained findings shows from Table 1, that respondent means age for female lies in the 15 to 35 age group and for males lies in the 36 to 55 age group. This shows the importance of grape production in the area since the majority of participants lie in the low and middle ages and most of them are capable farmers and still energetic in involving in grape production. Mulashani (2016), declared the importance of age as the factor that can explain the level of production and efficiency, and it is thought that the young population is more productive than the older population.

Furthermore, findings indicated that only a few people above 56 years of age engaged in grape farming activities among the selected sample.

Based on gender most females participating in production aged from 15 to 55 were 41.5 per cent while male ranged 15 to 55 were 44.4 per cent this gives a clear picture that males are more highly involved in grape production than females, these findings relate to a study held by Natalia Kalimang`asi, Robert Majula and Nathaniel Naftali (2014) who found that males produce more than females do. Also, the findings show that males at the age of 36 to 55 depend on grape production 26.3 per cent more than female who engages more in 15 to 35 of ages taking 22 per cent (Table 1).

The obtained findings also indicated that the number of males headed is greater than female-headed Table 2, in the area 63.6 per cent were male-headed engaged in grape production while females were 36.4 per cent; this means most grape farmers are male-headed households implying that most resource controller and decision-makers in the family are men. Also, this shows that for the male-headed family grape production is given priority over female-headed.

According to Table 3, educated farmers are expected to have more production compared to uneducated farmers. This is based on the fact that new technology and techniques in production are easily adopted by farmers with education. From the descriptive statistics of the study, there is a total of 11 per cent of farmers uneducated, 60.2 per cent at the primary level, 25.4 per cent at the secondary level, and 3.4 per cent at the university level. Table 3 shows that farmers with primary education and

secondary education were involved in grape production followed by uneducated farmers while farmers with university education were very few. In the study, two villages of Mpunguzi B and Matumbulu were found with grape farmers at the university level. Thus, the result shows that grape production was practised mostly by low-education farmers and farmers with higher education were not effectively engaged in grape production (Table 3). This portrays that the higher education level the lower involvement in agricultural activities.

Furthermore, the study area is found in the central plateau zone which is famous for the production of fruits. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and food security- Horticulture Unit, (2005) fruits such as Baobab, Mango, Papaya, Guava, and Grapes were found in the Dodoma region. According to this study (Table 4) crops like Ground nuts, Maize, Sunflower, Bambara nuts, Millet, Sesame, and Tomato were found in the different study areas. Grape production is the leading crop in the village studied followed by groundnuts, Tomatoes and Maize. Sunflowers and other crops are produced in low level.

So far according to Table 6, The Average technical efficiency of the stochastic production frontier model is 0.57 with a minimum value of 0.21 and maximum value of 0.99, the minimum value shows the most inefficient farmers and the maximum value shows the most efficient farmers. The average efficiency of 0.57 signifies that all farmers have the room to increase TE by 0.43 per cent while inefficiency farmer has a chance to increase efficiency production by 0.79 per cent and maximum efficiency farmers has a chance to increase by only 1 per cent.

Table 7 shows household costs incurred during grape production per acre/year. Stakeholder farmers incur different costs starting from land preparation up to harvesting which they use different labour forces like family, hire or both hired and family labour. On average grape industries use both variable and fixed inputs like land and FYM among many inputs, results reveal that the grape industry earns a profit of 667,419.00 Tzs per acre which expend the production cost of 831,000.00 Tzs.

Major challenges faced by farmers in during 2017/2018 grape production were inadequate capital, insufficient market, crop diseases, lack of storage facilities, transportation problems, high cost of input, low selling price, lack of knowledge, lack of credit, poor government support, lack of

extension services in the area and climate change in the area. These challenges contributed to low yield for grape farmers and lead them to earn a low income. From the challenges analyzed (Table 8) in this study, each village had its unique challenges compared to the others. The unreliable market was leading by 41.9 per cent from all villages followed by inadequate capital at 35.9 per cent, crop disease at 35.9 per cent, and low selling price at 23.9 per cent.

Mpunguzi A village was leading in lacking capital, followed by Matumbulu while an unreliable market was highly reported in Mpunguzi village. The challenge of diseases also was highly reported in Mpunguzi A, while a lack of improved variety was highly reported in Matumbulu. Other challenges are shown in Table 8, for the number of respondents interviewed and their percentages contributions in the village. To improve and make grape production sustainable the challenges identified must be considered by the government so that farmers could improve their earning and life standards as well.

CONCLUSION
Proper information should be supplied to young people on the importance and profit obtained from grape farming. It has been shown in this study that most people with 36 to 55 years are engaged in grape production. Also educated people are not much engaged in grape farming as per results 60.2 per cent of all farmers are primarily educated. Grape production faces large competition from other crops in terms of land and other input resources like labour, thirty-four (34) per cent of the one hundred and twenty (120) grape farmers interviewed produce grapes while other crops are produced in small quantities, for example, ground nuts (19.1 per cent), Tomato (16.7 per cent) and maize (15 per cent). Factors which lead to production efficiency several such as contact with an agriculture extension officer to acquire more knowledge concerning production husbandry, and increasing productivity, followed by uses of pesticides like insecticide, and other chemicals to increase profit as well as uses of mixed labour (family and hired labour) which increase efficiency then output which ends up with high profit. Inefficiency factors are those factors which are oriented to the social characteristics of grape farmers which are determined by the knowledge and strength of farmers. These factors can increase or decrease productivity. In this study price extension and experience increase production output, while the area used for grape production decreased production output. This means that grape

production depends much on the experience of farmers, extension and price of output. Other factors like age, area/ land and education are not significant for grape production. For the efficient model, the findings revealed that price is the main factor which determines production efficiency. Farmers will be able to reallocate many resources like time, money and labor forces if they predict price increases. Therefore, a study on market integration and market transmission should be considered as a factor to improve production efficiency. The farmers are not technically efficient in grape production. Even if they earn low profits by using indigenous knowledge, they still have room to increase profit. Grape farmers incur a large cost of production which reduces profit from grape farming. If the farmers are efficient, they will have the opportunity to increase production by an average of 47%. Grape farmers use Tzs. 831000 as a production cost to produce 1280 kg per acre. The farmer earns Tzs 667 819 from one acre of grape farm. The farmers have the potential to increase profit up to Tzs 981 693.93 per acre. The increase in profit by grape farmers depends much on the level of increase in efficiency such as the use of fertilizer, pesticide and mechanization in general.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Several strategies should be initiated as key factors to boost grape production. One such strategy is to reduce the cost of input to increase purchasing power of farmers which will rise production efficiency by increasing the use of improved technologies such as fertilizer and pesticide. In addition, agriculture extension officers should be provided to every village because they are the key experts to disseminate improved technologies. The formation of groups or cooperatives is also very important to solve the problem of lack of capital and market problems. Agriculture experts should establish close relationships with farmers to eliminate emerging problems such as disease and inputs. Finally, simple storage facilities should be provided to solve the post-harvest loss of grapes. These strategies should be initiated in collaboration with different partners such as individuals, the private sector and the government.

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An Examination of the Humanitarianism-Disaster Management Nexus in Tanzania's Policy and Legal Framework

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ABSTRACT

The use of law, the main tool for implementing policy, to regulate and coordinate disaster management, preparedness and response systems features in many jurisdictions. Also, international guidance on the use of effective laws and policies, which emphasize taking on board critical stakeholders, including humanitarian responders is available. Consequently, the government of Tanzania has promulgated a new disaster management law as part of a wider reform of the legal framework to regulate disaster management and response systems which seek to involve stakeholders at all stages. This article analyses the extent to which the restructured legal framework and supporting policy address humanitarian responders who provide informal assistance, often before formal government intervention. The article traces the history of disaster management policies and laws in the country in the context of the humanitarianism – disaster management nexus. It focuses on the aftermath of the earthquake that ravaged Kagera Region in Bukoba district in the northern west part of the country in September 2016. This analysis is supported with field data from Bukoba district. The findings reveal that the legal framework for regulating disaster management and response system does not reflect international and regional clarion calls for engaging informal humanitarian responders. Recommendations on how this gap can be addressed are provided, laying emphasis on incorporating the clarion calls in order to improve the country's legal and policy framework for disaster response and management systems.

Keywords: *Disaster management; humanitarianism; policy and law; Tanzania*

INTRODUCTION

Disasters such as tornadoes, storms, hurricanes, droughts, severe floods and earthquakes occur suddenly within a community, resulting in loss of lives, property and destruction of infrastructure. Often, the affected community, without outside assistance, cannot handle the distraction.[1]

On 10 September 2016, the Kagera region, situated on the shores of Lake Victoria in northwestern Tanzania was hit by an earthquake (Kagera earthquake). Then the region had a population of 2,458,023. Out of these, 1,814,481 were residing in six districts affected by the earthquake.[2] The earthquake led to the loss of 17 lives. Close to 140,000 people were directly affected and 2,500 homes were destroyed.[3] In the aftermath, responders, including international and local Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) provided emergency relief operations offering food, health care and shelter under the coordination of the government.

Subsequently, humanitarian actors also took part in emergency relief operations being the promptest responders before government intervention. They also took part in burying disaster victims.[4] They did this out of impulse without expecting favors in return. Despite their critical role, such responders have not been aptly recognized nor appreciated in formal legal and policy frameworks.

In the context of this article, humanitarianisms refers to valuing human beings and providing assistance to ease suffering and improve livelihoods of disasters victims, irrespective of differing paradigms.[5] Consequently, the conceptual framework on humanitarianism adopted reflects historical conventional practices of local actors engaging in providing immediate

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[1] United Nations and United Republic of Tanzania (2016) Joint Damage and Needs Assessment Report on Earthquake, Kagera Region (Available at https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/tanzania_final_joint_needs_assessment_report_26september2016.pdf accessed 30 November 2022)

[2] United Nations office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR). (Available at https://www.undrr.org/terminology/disaster accessed 30 November 2022)

[3] International Federation of Red cross and Red Crescent Societies (2016), Emergency Plan of Action (EPoA) Tanzania: Earthquake (Available at https://www.globalgiving.org/pfil/25160/projdoc.pdf accessed 30 November 2022)

[4] *Ibid.*

[5] See D. Classical humanitarianism and resilience humanitarianism: making sense of two brands of humanitarian action. *Int J Humanitarian Action* **3,** 15 (2018). https://doi.org/10.1186/s41018-018-0043-6.

assistance outside formal structures on impulse.[6] The article focuses primarily on the relationship between disasters and humanitarianism espoused in the law and policy in Mainland Tanzania (Tanzania).[7] This is because management of disasters is not a Union matter under the framework of the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania.[8] Zanzibar has a separate legislative, policy and institutional regime.[9]

Although studies on disaster management in Tanzania exist, these have not addressed the policy and legal framework in the context of the intrinsic link between disasters and humanitarianism. This article seeks to fill this lacuna.

METHODOLOGY

Data for this article was obtained through documentary reviews and observations and interviews in Kagera region in a cooperative research project between public Universities in Denmark and the University of Dar-es-Salaam. The project, (*Everyday Humanitarianism in Tanzania - EHTZ*), explores the practices of everyday humanitarianism and attitudes that ground them from the perspective of different disciplines.[10] In terms of documentary review, policies, laws, studies and reports on humanitarian responders in disaster management in Tanzania and other jurisdictions were scrutinized.[11] The website was helpful in tracing documents, studies and reports of the Kagera earthquake.[12]

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[6] See: Richey, L.A & Chouliaraki, L (Eds.) (2017) Everyday humanitarianism: Ethics, affects and practices, New Political Science, 39:2, 314-316, DOI: 10.1080/07393148.2017.1304737; Fechter, A. M and Schwittay, A (Eds.), (2020) Citizen aid and everyday humanitarianism development futures? Routledge, Oxfordshire; and Čarna Brković (2020) Vernacular humanitarianism in Antonio De Lauri (Ed.) (2020) Humanitarianism. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004431140_0104 (last accessed on 29 March 2022).

[7] *National Disaster Management Policy, Ibid.*, see Paragraph 9.4: See also Stoke, K. (2007). Humanitarian response to natural disasters: A synthesis of evaluation findings, NORAD, Norway (Available at: https://www.norad.no/en/toolspublications/publications/2009/humanitarian-response-to-natural-disasters--a-synthesis-of-evaluation-findings/

[8] See the First Schedule of the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, 1977 Cao. 2 [R.E. 2002].

[9] The Zanzibar Disaster Risk Management Act, No. 1 of 2015 and the Zanzibar Disaster Management Policy, 2011. See also Ame, A. W, (2015). *Assessment of the framework for disaster management in Zanzibar: The case of west district*, MA Dissertation, Open University of Tanzania.

[10] For more details on this Project see: https://www.everydayhumanitarianismintanzania.org/

[11] The laws that were reviewed and used during interviews with respondents were those that existed during the Earthquake. These laws were repealed just before the article went to print.

[12] See for example: https://www.globalgiving.org/projects/support-tanzania-earthquake-relief/reports/?subid= 95246 (last accessed on 20 February 2022).

Subsequently, interviews were conducted with identified key respondents sampled in consultation with District Disaster Management officials in Kagera. Consequently, respondents were drawn from Bukoba rural, Missenyi, Karagwe and Muleba Districts, which were severely affected by the earthquake.[13] During interviews, ethical research principles were complied with to avoid causing psychological harm where respondents were required to recount events. It was made clear to respondents at the outset that they should not respond to questions they found inappropriate or uncomfortable with. Also, researchers were on alert during interviews by ensuring respondents did not recount traumatic events.[14]

Interviews focused on individual informal humanitarian responders in the earthquake relief operations. Respondents were probed on the nature of assistance provided to them by individuals, Faith Based Organizations (FBOs), Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), NGOs and Community Based Organizations (CBOs.) during and after the earthquake.

Further, respondents at the Disaster Management Department in the Prime Minister's Office (PMOs) at Dodoma were asked about strategies to include individual humanitarian responders in legal and policy making processes. Also, personnel from the National Coordinator of Disaster Management Unit and legal officers at the PMOs office at Dodoma were interviewed. Similarly, views of the Deputy Attorney General, a member of the National Disaster Management Committee and District and legal officers at the Attorney General's (AG) Chambers and the National Assembly involved in drafting laws were obtained. At the District levels, interviews were held with the Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS) of Kagera, District Executive Officers (DEDs), members of the Disaster Management Committees (DMCs) and State Attorneys stationed at Districts visited.

Also interviewed were officials from NGOs (Red Cross and World Vision in Bukoba), the Ward Executive Officer (WEO) of Hamugembe, Village and Ward chairpersons in Kashai and Hamugembe Wards and

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[13] See: https://reliefweb.int/report/united-republic-tanzania/tanzania-earthquake-emergency-plan-action-final-report-mdrtz020
[14] Claire Burke Draucker, Donna S. Martsolf, and Candice Poole. (2009). Developing distress protocols for research on sensitive topics, archives of psychiatric nursing, Vol. 23, No. 5 (October), 2009: pp 343–350

representatives of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania at Bukoba. Elder persons from local community members and retired district officials who had witnessed and had been affected by the earthquake were also interviewed.

Data was analyzed qualitatively by reviewing laws and policies to allow in depth comprehension of their reflection of humanitarian responders in disaster management and response processes. Documents and reports were analyzed by contextualizing their reflection on humanitarian responders during the earthquake.[15] Data obtained from interviews, on the other hand, was analyzed using the classical content analysis approach from field interview notes.[16] Relevant policies from Rwanda and Kenya were also analyzed for purposes of comparison and to draw lessons from.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
History and Development of Managing Disasters
Global perspectives
The history, evolution and link between disasters and humanitarianism has been traced to the slave trade era, colonialism and the after-math of Battles for conquering Empires in Europe, leading to the emergence of the Geneva Convention and the International Red Cross.[17] In terms of application of law during disasters, it has been noted that the colonial State *'profoundly altered the legal structure several times in terms of disasters affecting populations as it was required to do more than enforcing conditions of law and order as soon as possible…"* [18] The State simply did not have enough resources and had to resort to outside assistance.[19]

Accordingly, historical accounts suggest that volcanoes, floods and other catastrophic events, mainly due to climate change, caused of the earliest

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[15] Kohlbacher, F. (2006). The use of qualitative content analysis in case study research, Forum Qualitative Social Research, Vol. 7 No. 1 Art. 21- January 2006 (https://www.researchgate.net/ publication/228370291_The_Use_of_Qualitative_Content_Analysis_in_Case_Study_Research/link/0c960524 60957f32e5000000/download)

[16] Onwuegbuzie, A. J et al., (2012). Qualitative analysis techniques for the review of the literature
The Qualitative Report 2012 Volume 17, Article 56, 1-28 https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ981457.pdf

[17] Lester A and Dussart, F, (2014). Colonization and the origins of human governance, Cambridge University Press, London, pp. 3-5.

[18] *Ibid.,* pp. 18.

[19] *Ibid.*

forms of disasters.[20] Also, disaster management coping systems among communities in the primitive mode of production era (hunter-gatherers) were not fully developed. This was attributed to the use of relatively crude instruments, despite communal arrangements where relations and factors of production were shared. Thus, disasters endangered members of the entire society who pulled forces to address them in social solidarity.[21] With the development of more advanced tools in the communal mode of production, diverse methods were used to address disasters involving all members of the community.

The agrarian mode of production saw the emergence of private ownership of the means of production and landlord – serfdom relations. The emergence of classes in this set up witnessed a different approach in addressing disasters. Without expecting reward, neighbors who were driven by a sense of duty, assisted victims. The emergence of a fully blown capitalist system saw the emergence of humanitarianism generally, including in Africa.[22] During the pre-colonial era, societies in Africa also practiced humanitarianism, based on spontaneous sense of assisting others in times of need to maintain the social fabric.[23]

Background to Humanitarianism and Disasters in Tanzania
Different forms of disasters causing untold hardships have hit Tanzania.[24] In an effort to provide relief, some well-intended stakeholders from private institutions, CSOs, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs and individuals have

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[20] See generally Fitzhugh, B. (2012). Hazards, impacts, and resilience among hunter-gatherers of the Kuril Islands in Cooper J and Sheets, P (Eds.), (2012), Surviving sudden environmental change: Answers from Archaeology (pp. 19-42) Chapter 1, Colorado Press.

[21] Alfirdaus, L.K. *et al*. (2015). Theories of social solidarity in the situations of (natural) disasters, POLITIKA, Vol. 6 No. 1 April (2015) (Available at: C:/Users/Hp/Downloads/9811-22041-1-PB.pdf) (last accessed on 20 March 2022).

[22] Ian Scoones (2021) Pastoralists and peasants: perspectives on agrarian change, The Journal of Peasant Studies, 48:1, 1-47, DOI: 10.1080/03066150.2020.1802249 p. 6 (Available at: https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/03066150.2020.1802249?needAccess=true) (accessed on 20 March 2022).

[23] Testart, A. (1987). Appropriation of the social product and productions relations in hunter gather societies, dialectical anthropology, Vol. 12 No. 2 (1987) pp. 147-164 & Mati, J.M. (2017). Philanthropy in contemporary Africa: A review, BRILL, Boston (2017) pp. 16-33.

[24] See: https://reliefweb.int/report/united-republic-tanzania/tanzania-floods-emergency-plan-action-final-report-n-mdrtz021; https://reliefweb.int/report/united-republic-tanzania/tanzania-earthquake-emergency-plan-action-final-report-mdrtz020; and International Center for Environmental Monitoring (CIMA) and United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR) (2018), Disaster risk profile for the United Republic of Tanzania. Available at: https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Report_Tanzania_Final-compressed_D8Z1dRe.pdf (accessed on 26 May 2022).

offered humanitarian assistance.[25] However, such efforts have not always been accorded a friendly reception by some government personnel. One of the reasons advanced for the cold reception is an allegedly lack of adherence to law and procedures by some responders.[26] Sometimes concerns have been raised on the distribution of humanitarian assistance.[27] Nevertheless, the government has put in place a Plan to provide guidance on how to provide assistance with roles and responsibilities.[28] The plan has been supplemented with the most recent initiatives by government, with the launching of the National Disaster Preparedness and Response Plan (2022), National Disaster Communication Strategy (2022) and National Disaster Management Strategy (2022-2027).[29] Despite these initiatives complaints have still persisted.[30]

Pre-Colonial Era

Disasters in the form of famine (drought) and diseases that faced local communities in Tanzania have been traced to pre-colonial societies - in the mid 1800's and early 1890's. These disasters crippled indigenous systems of control and adjustment that had been developed by some communities.[31] Humanitarianism assistance during disasters among local inhabitants in the pre-colonial era has also been documented.[32] Accordingly, the mechanisms devised to cope with disasters were communal and overseen by institutional arrangements organized around

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[25] See for example media reports on humanitarian assistance to the earthquake victims in Kagera region in 2016 at: https://mtanzania.co.tz/wafanyabiashara-wachangia-waathirika-kagera/ (last accessed on 26 February 2022).

[26] See Paragraph 1.4 of the National Disaster Policy of Tanzania, 2004. A retired DMC in Kagera confirmed this in one of the interviews on the types of assistance for victims of the 2016 earthquake in the region. He was in charge of response operations during the earthquake.

[27] Interviews with officials from the Regional and District Disaster Management office in Kagera region noted that in some cases such assistance has been politically motivated or based on religious beliefs with expectation of reciprocity from victims.

[28] See United Republic of Tanzania. (2012). Tanzania emergency preparedness and response plan (TEPRP), 2012, Prime Minister's Office, Disaster Management Department.

[29] See: Mwakyusa, A. (2023). Government enhances disaster preparedness. Daily Newspaper. Retrieved at: https://dailynews.co.tz/govt-enhances-disaster-preparedness/

[30] See: Citizen Newspaper 15th November 2016 updated on April 19 2021: https://www.thecitizen.co.tz/tanzania/news/bukoba-quake-exposes-gap-in-disaster-response-strategy--2567688

[31] Koponen, J. (1988). War, famine and pestilence in later pre-colonial Tanzania: A case for a heightened mortality. The International Journal of African Historical Studies, 21, 4 (1988) p. 637 and p. 644.

[32] *Ibid.,* p. 644.

traditional leaders through known customs, rituals and norms.[33] There was no formal system of law to regulate the mechanisms developed that is known today.

Colonial Period
Colonial governments in Tanzania (then Tanganyika) advocated for a general policy and legal regime that encouraged and regulated cash crop production by the local African laborers to meet the demands of metropolitans.[34] The unwritten policies that had some bearing on disaster management during this era were reflected in some of the laws.[35] There was no comprehensive law to regulate disasters.

Consequently, the colonial approach of indirect rule that was adopted in colonial Tanganyika saw the enactment of laws to regulate local inhabitants - the Native Authorities Ordinances of 1923 and 1927. These granted decision-making powers on affairs of local communities (natives) to local chiefs, on behalf of colonial administrators. Some of these powers were aimed at controlling agricultural production through the unwritten policies and laws.[36] Laws that had some bearing on disaster management during this era included those related to public health and control of infectious and occupational diseases that affected humans and animals.[37]

Initially local communities' indigenous management systems, which were based predominately on humanitarianism acts, for addressing other forms of disasters, remained relatively intact during the colonial regime. However, these started to fade progressively with the codification of customary laws by the independence government.[38] With the fading away of indigenous systems and its structures, the concept of humanitarianism inherent in them, gradually reduced.

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[33] UNEP. (2008). Indigenous knowledge in disaster management in Africa, Nairobi, pp. 69-70. See also Hambati, H. (2021). Invisible resilience: Indigenous knowledge systems of earthquake disaster management in Kagera region, Tanzania *Utafiti*, 16: 247-270.
[34] Neal, S. A. (1981). Colonial dilemma: British policy and the colonial economy of Tanganyika: 1918-1938, MA Thesis, Department of History, Australian National University (1981) pp. 226 and 177.
[35] *Ibid*., p. 146.
[36] Bienen, H. (1970). Tanzania party transformation and economic development, Princeton Legacy Library, New Jersey, (1970) p. 38.
[37] See for example, the Occupational Health Ordinance, 1953, Animal Diseases Ordinance, Cap. 156, Penal Code, Cap. 16 and Factories Ordinance of 1950 Cap. 297.
[38] Harald, S. (1998). "Customary family law in colonial Tanganyika: A study of change and continuity." *The Comparative and International Law Journal of Southern Africa* 31, Volume Number 3 (1998): 373–83. P. 378 (Available at: http://www.jstor.org/stable/23250262

Post-colonial Era

The independence government promulgated policies and legislation to address disasters. These also seek to involve stakeholders and make sporadic reference to humanitarian responders.

Disaster Management Policy and Legal Framework

Policies set out long and short-term strategies to achieve government goals. They also set the foundation for laws.[39] Some ancillary sector policies in Tanzania, for example, those relating to forests, land, environment, agriculture and health refer to disasters, such as calamities, emergencies and hazards.[40] However, there is one framework policy that addresses disaster management.

The National Disaster Management Policy, 2004

The National Disaster Management Policy of 2004 (the Policy) is the pioneer framework Policy regulating disasters in Tanzania. [41] However, the law that was put in place to regulate disasters, the Disaster Relief and Coordination Act,[42] was enacted before 2004, without a Policy! As noted, policies ought to precede laws to enable legislative drafters enact good laws. Thus, the 1999 Act was destined for disaster! The Policy puts it cogently, admitting the ineffectiveness of the Act, calling for its review to reflect global and regional initiatives.[43]

The Policy's institutional arrangement has a bearing to humanitarianism actors. Chapter 3 provides for institutions tasked with coordination, guidance, providing direction and approving relief support during disasters. Paragraph 3.1 establishes structures from the national to the local community level. Whereas at the national level, there are the National Disaster Management Committees provided for by paragraph 3.11, similar Committees are envisaged at the district levels (Disaster Management Coordination Committees); Villages and Wards have similar

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[39] Page, E. C. (2009). Their word is law: Parliamentary counsel and creative policy analysis, Sweet & Maxwell, London pp. 1-2 Available at: https://personal.lse.ac.uk/Pagee/Papers/PL%202009%204%20E.% 20Page%20offprint.pdf

[40] See the Land Policy, 1997, Environmental Policy, 1997, Forest Policy, 1998, Agriculture Policy, 2013 and Health Policy, 2017.

[41] Available at: https://www.pmo.go.tz/uploads/documents/sw-1664370353-Disaster%20Management%20Policy%202004.pdf

[42] No. 9 of 1999, Laws of Tanzania.

[43] Paragraph 1.1 of the Policy

committees. Their composition, structure and powers of these are outlined in Annexes 1 and 2 of the Policy. There is some effort to recognize humanitarianism responders as important members of these Committees.

Also, the Fire and Rescue Force established by the Fire and Rescue Act of 2007,[44] a critical institution in addressing disasters, is recognized by the Policy in Paragraph 3.2.2. This Paragraph calls for amendment of the 1990 Disasters Management Act to permit private sector players and by extension humanitarian actors in fire and rescue operations. The Fire and Rescue Act should be read with the amendments made to it in 2021, which introduce the concept of a 'volunteer fire fighter.[45] However, the charitable aspect of this seemingly 'humanitarian' aspect of this 'volunteer' is watered down since such person can be *"ordered by the Minister to fight fire and perform search and rescue services."*[46]

The Fire and Rescue Force is required to prepare disaster prevention plans and protect life and property during fire disasters.[47] Its other main duties that have a bearing to the disaster- humanitarianism nexus is outlined in section 15 (3) (a) - (k).   The Minister in charge of the Force by Regulations may extend these powers. The Force is also charged with the overall duty of coordinating Disaster Management Committees established in Districts. This power is provided for by section 15 (3) (e). Section 15 (3) (h) empowers the Force to establish disaster command posts and to organize voluntary groups for preparedness in case of fire disasters under section 15 (3) (k). It is also vested with the power to take charge of private brigades by section 15 (3) (f).

The Minister's power under the Disaster Management Act, in relation to humanitarian assistance, should also be read with the Policy's provisions on fire and rescue. The Minister may order voluntary adult firefighters or private rescue service providers to provide their services or equipment under their control to address a disaster, with provision for compensation, which may not be adequate![48] The discretion of the Minister to make such orders removes the element of voluntarism required of humanitarianisms. Thus, discouraging well-intended persons that want to take part in disaster

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[44] Cap. 427, Laws of Tanzania [R.E. 2002].
[45] The Fire and Rescue Force (Amendment) Act No. 8 of 2021.
[46] Section 3 of the Fire and Rescue Force (Amendment) Act No. 8 of 2021.
[47] Section 5 (m) and 7 (1) (b), respectively of the Cap. 427.
[48] Section 12 (6) of the Act.

response processes, especially considering that the process of getting compensation may be unduly bureaucratic. Further, the 'compulsory' provision does not augur well with paragraph 1.6.1 (ii) of the Policy's objective, which seeks to enhance involvement of community members in disaster relief operations, ostensibly on a charitable basis.

The Police Force, referred to in paragraph 3.2.4 of the Policy and Local Government Authorities (LGAs) are other important institutions that have a direct bearing on humanitarian actors during disasters. Paragraph 2.1.4 (c) (iii) empowers LGAs to ensure full participation of affected populations in disaster recovery programs. As noted, it is the local community members, in proximity to disaster victims, who are the first responders and help before government moves in. Thus, it is surprising that this is the Policy's only paragraph referring to LGAs. However, laws establishing LGAs give them immense powers in relation to disaster management in their jurisdictions. For example, the Local Government (District) Authorities Act, 1982 which provides for disaster management issues although it does not mention the word 'disaster.' Part V of the 1982 Act outlines the basic functions of LGAs including establishing, maintaining and controlling fire brigades, prevention of outbreak of diseases and controlling famine. [49] Also, the Tanzania Emergency Preparedness and Response Plan (TEPRP) of 2012 recognizes the critical role of LGAs in disaster operations. Further, TEPRP appreciates the role of District Disaster Management Committees and villagers as the first responders in a disaster. [50]

Unlike other Policies in the East African region, which make direct reference to humanitarian actors, the Policy framework for disaster management for Tanzania makes a comparatively indirect reference to humanitarian responders in disasters. [51] Paragraph 1.4 of the National Policy for Disaster Management in Kenya, for example, is explicit:

The contribution of these stakeholders (humanitarian responders in disaster management) in Kenya has been invaluable and the Government will continue to encourage this collaboration…for purposes of realizing

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[49] Sections 118 & the First and Second Schedules to the Act
[50] Annex 2 of the Plan
[51] See Paragraphs 1.7 and 3.5 on "The Humanitarian imperative" perspective in Rwanda's National Disaster Management Policy of 2012 and Kenya's National Disaster Management Policy of 2009, respectively.

synergies, providing linkages, promoting trust, goodwill and ownership of the Disaster Management Systems…

Paragraph 9.4 of Tanzania's Policy recognizes the Red Cross as an important stakeholder, vested with a defined humanitarian role in disaster operations. However, in some instances, the Policy insinuates a lack of trust and advocates for compulsion, creating a hostile environment for cooperation and coordination.[52] Also, humanitarian assistance through fundraising to provide relief in disaster-hit areas is sometimes viewed suspiciously.[53] For example, Paragraph 2.1.6 (a) of the Policy requires stakeholders to enter into Memorandums of Understanding (MoUs) with the government for provision of aid. Paragraph 3.2.2 of the Policy, outlining the involvement of the private sector in disaster relief efforts states that such stakeholders should be approached with caution since they are 'often motivated by profit.'[54] This clear distrust in an official Policy document is inappropriate.

Other stakeholders who work in collaboration with humanitarian organizations in disaster management operations provided for in Paragraphs 3.2 and 3.2.8 of the Policy are local communities and individuals, respectively. Others are NGOs, Paragraph 3.2.6 (international agencies) and Paragraph 3.2.7 (media), CBOs and LGAs. The role of religion in pre and post disaster relieve operations has been emphasized.[55] However, the role played by Business Societies and FBOs has been placed at the periphery. These have been recognized only as potential monitors and evaluators of impacts of disasters under Paragraph 3.4.

The bureaucracy that is often faced by humanitarian responders during relief operations is also noted. Paragraph 2.1.7.4 (a) of the Policy provides

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[52] Interview from a respondent in a FBO in Kagera who noted that their organizations predominantly targeted its assistance to believers. To him the government should not interfere in such cases since Tanzania is a secular state and therefore should not take sides in religious issues.

[53] Information obtained from interviews with Regional Disaster Management (RDM) officials at the Bukoba District Council on 9th March 2022.

[54] The element of mistrust among those who provided humanitarian assistance in Kagera during the 2016 earthquake was re-echoed by a cross section of respondents, especially from the Disaster Coordination Units. The perception of victims in Missenye and Rwamishenye, however, was different. They argued that humanitarianism actors were the first responders who offered shelter, blankets and mattresses to them even before government moved in.

[55] Sanne Bech Holmgaard. (2019). The role of religion in local perceptions of disasters: The case of post-tsunami religious and social change in Samoa, Environmental Hazards, 18:4, 311-325, DOI: 10.1080/17477891.2018.1546664.

that there is no clear arrangement for provision of relief to victims and as a result the process is often politicized.[56] To address this, Paragraph 2.1.7.4 (c) calls for guidelines to address the challenge to address, *inter alia*, eligibility to relief, types of relief and quality of humanitarian assistance.[57]

International and Regional Cooperation

Paragraph 2.1.7.2 of the Policy calls for the need for government to cooperate with stakeholders at the international and regional levels. It calls upon the government to ratify and implement international legal instruments. In terms of the strategy for implementation, Paragraph 3.3 of the Policy calls for amendment of the Disaster Management Act, 1990 to take on board regional cooperation and ostensibly international as well.

Indeed, the government has implemented the Hyogo Framework for Action (2009-2011) (Hyogo Framework), a global Blueprint that sought to assist countries devise strategies to reduce vulnerability to disasters.[58] Also, the 2010 Report on implementing the Hyogo Framework captures Tanzania's government efforts in this regard.[59] Earlier, the government had taken part in global Conferences on disasters. These include the World Conference on Disaster Reduction, held in 2005 in Japan where the Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters was adopted.[60] The government also signed the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 (Sendai Framework) adopted by the UN, replacing the Hyogo Framework.[61]

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[56] Information obtained from the interviews with respondents (except those from government) in Kagera region reflects this attitude.

[57] Respondents, from government, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs and victims lamented that the directive by the government to stop provision of assistance from humanitarianism actors during the 2016 earthquake in Kagera region was very untimely and unreasonable as the government itself took close to two weeks to organize support to victims while the actors' action was immediate.

[58] See: https://www.unisdr.org/2005/wcdr/preparatory-process/national-reports/Tanzania-report.pdf (accessed on 20 March 2022).

[59] United Republic of Tanzania. (2010). National progress report on implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2009-2011) Available at: https://www.preventionweb.net/files/16232_tza_NationalHFAprogress_2009-11.pdf.

[60] See: https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/majorhazards/ressources/Apcat2005/APCAT-2005-26-e-rapport-kobe.pdf

[61] The Sendai Framework is available at: https://www.und rr.org/publication/hyogo-framework-action-2005-2015-building-resilience-nations-and-communities-disasters

The Hyogo Framework urged Parties to enact local legislation to effectively implement related policies and encourage compliance.[62] The Sendai Framework also lays emphasis on Parties to include in their policy and legal framework provisions to recognize humanitarianism responders.[63] It also requires Parties to *"pay special attention to the importance of organized voluntary work of citizens…(and) engage private stakeholders, CSOs, CBOs, the elderly and the private sector.*"[64] In terms of engaging FBOs, the Sendai Framework re-echoes the need to protect religious interests, in disaster management.[65]

At the regional level, Tanzania has also been active in the Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction and the Africa Regional Platform for Disaster Risk Management established with assistance from the United Nations Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR) Africa. The government co-hosted (with the AU and UNISDR) the 4th African Regional Platform on Disaster Risk Reduction (AfRP) in February 2013 in Arusha.[66] This Meeting adopted Africa's Statement on Disaster Risk Reduction. The government has also participated in the EAC regional initiatives to address disaster management within the framework of the EAC Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Strategy (2012-2016).[67] Suffice to point out that the regional initiatives on disaster management re-echo the call for the pre and post Hyogo Framework's in addressing disaster management holistically by involving all critical stakeholders, including humanitarian actors.

The above analysis clearly reveals that the government of Tanzania has committed to implementing the Policy's clarion call to engage all key stakeholders at the regional and international levels in addressing disasters. The stakeholders envisaged here include humanitarianism actors. A review of the framework law put in place to implement the Policy would now be undertaken.

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[62] The Hyogo Framework is available at: https://www.unisdr.org/2005/wcdr/intergover/official-doc/L-docs/Hyogo-framework-for-action-english.pdf & 'Strategic Goals,' Clause C (12) of the 2005 Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters (Available at: https://www.unisdr.org/2005/wcdr/intergover/official-doc/L-docs/Hyogo-framework-for-action-english.pdf
[63] See Clauses 36 (v), 24 (i) and 27 (h).
[64] See Clauses 7, 19 (d) 33 (a) and 27 (h).
[65] Clause 30 (d).
[66] See the Report at: https://www.undrr.org/publication/report-4th-africa-regional-platform-disaster-risk-reduction-protect-development-gains
[67] https://www.preventionweb.net/files/EAC_DRRMS(2012-2016)version_1.4 [1].pdf

Disaster Management Act, 2015[68]

The Disaster Management Act of 2022 has replaced this Act.[69] However, the 2015 Act still provides a valuable foundation for understanding the legislative framework for disaster management in the context of the humanitarian nexus. In fact, it remains to be a law that can be referred to by courts to interpret subsequent laws.[70] Thus, its analysis is justified.

Section 4 of the 2015 Act established the Disaster Management Agency (DMA), disaster risk management plans and coordination mechanism for responding, preventing and mitigating disasters. It also established a disaster management fund.[71] The functions of the DMA included coordinating institutions monitoring disaster recovery and assessment of disaster risks (Section 5). The DMA was to be housed at the PMOs but was referred to as the Disaster Management Department, not an Agency as envisaged by the law that established it.[72] It was also required to coordinate inter-ministerial entities engaged in disaster management and mobilize resources.

The 2015Act also established the Disaster Management Governing Council (DMC) comprising of Permanent Secretaries of Ministries. [73] However, there was no representation of humanitarian agencies in the DMC despite making provision for co-opting 'any person when need arose.' The DMC, an advisory body to the Minister, was to ensure that disaster risk management matters are integrated into government plans, policies and strategies and recommend policy changes.

In reflecting the Policy, the 2015 Act set up a decentralized system of disaster management by establishing Disaster Management Committees at regional, district, ward and village levels.[74] To avoid operational conflicts at these levels, the Act made specific reference to ancillary laws that also govern these organs. Organs established under LGA ancillary laws were designated under section 15 of the 2015 Act as Disaster Management

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[68] Cap. 242, R.E. [2002] (Act No. 7 of 2015) Laws of Tanzania.
[69] Act No. 1 of 2022
[70] See: Seeman, C (1938) "The retroactive effect of repeal legislation, "Kentucky Law Journal: Vol. 27, Issue 1, Article 3; Case from the High Court of Ireland: *Commissioner for Communication Regulation vs an Post* [2013] IEHC 149 and *R vs. Nott* (1843) 4 QB 768 and *R vs. Vassey* [1905] 2. K.B. 748.
[71] See the Preamble to the Act.
[72] See: https://www.pmo.go.tz/pages/disaster-printing-division (accessed on 30 March 2022).
[73] Sections 7 (1) and (2) and section 8.
[74] Sections 13,15, 18 and 20, respectively.

Committees. The representatives of the Committees included CBOs, NGOs, Red Cross, FBOs and 'humanitarian and voluntary organizations" and 'prominent persons' at ward and district levels and humanitarian and volunteer organizations.[75]

Section 29 of the 2015 Act established the Disaster Management Fund whose contributions were to come from, among other stakeholders, voluntary contributions from persons (humanitarianism actors) or organizations. The management of donations and contributions from private persons could be channelled directly to affected communities under section 30 of the 2015 Act but was regulated by the government. The government was to approve and the donor was required to provide a report on the same to it. In this regard, no person could go directly to the community to offer a donation.

Section 40 of the Act established a National Disaster Management Platform, which was to meet at least twice a year. Its functions included providing opportunities for stakeholders to meet and discuss strategic issues on disaster management and advise the government. The Platform was composed of Permanent Secretaries in Ministries, CSOs, the Red Cross, private institutions and humanitarian agencies.[76]

As noted from the foregoing analysis, the 2015 Act to some extent recognized various categories of stakeholders who provide instantaneous and informal assistance to disaster victims. To this extent, it was laudable. However, its failure to make even remote reference to international and regional legal instruments, which have been ratified by the government and call for reflection of the humanitarianisms-disaster management nexus is apparent. The attempt to address this shortfall by Regulations made under this Act is also not sufficient, as noted later below.

Disaster Management Act, No. 6 of 2022

The enactment of the Disaster Management Act of 2022 (new Act) was not been preceded by a change of the Policy. The new Act is in Kiswahili, it has not been translated into English.[77] It does not refer to humanitarianism respondents mentioned in the repealed Act but refers to

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[75] Sections 18 (2) (d)], 18 (2) (c) and 13(2) (c) and (d), respectively.
[76] Section 40 (2).
[77] It is available at: https://oagmis.agctz.go.tz/portal/acts/162

NGOs, the Red Cross and FBOs at the DMC levels. However, only the Red Cross appears in the disaster management Committees at the regional, district, ward and village levels. Its provisions relating to direct donations to affected communities have retained the repealed law through section 35.

In 2017, in implementing the Sendai Framework, the government enacted Regulations under the repealed Act.[78] The 2017 Regulations have been repealed by the Disaster Management Regulations of 2022.[79] Despite having been repealed, a review of the 2017 Regulations is critical for a comprehensive understanding of the foundation upon which Tanzania's disaster management legal regime in the context of humanitarianism is premised.

Disaster Management Regulations, 2017 [80]
To a great extent the Regulations re-iterated the Disaster Management Policy of ensuring disaster management planning commenced at the lowest level of local government structures. They also reflected the Policy's call to involve all key stakeholders, including humanitarian actors, in the disaster management processes at most levels.

Disaster Management Regulations, 2022[81]
The Disaster Management Regulations of 2022 are also in Kiswahili and were promulgated together with the Disaster Management Act. Regulation 30 repeals the 2017 Regulations. The repealed Regulations set the basis for the law and as noted above, they can be referred to by courts in the course of interpreting subsequent similar laws.

Compared to the 2017 Regulations, the 2022 Regulations are a major retrogressive step in terms of the humanitarianism-disaster management nexus. They have wiped out the concept of humanitarianism envisaged by the Policy and the 2015 Act and make no reference to international and regional obligations that the government has committed to that require engaging humanitarian actors in managing disasters. Instead, the

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[78] The Disaster Management Regulations, G.N. No. 12 of 2017. Available at: https://www.pmo.go.tz/uploads/documents/sw-1664370655-Disaster%20Management%20Regulations%202017.pdf
[79] GN. No. 658A of 11th November 2022
[80] G.N. No. 12 of 2017.
[81] GN. No. 658A of 11th November 2022

Regulations introduce a very restricted procedure for engaging volunteers and humanitarian actors in disaster management processes. For example, Regulation 22 requires any person, private institution or NGO seeking to engage in disaster management activities to seek permission from Disaster Management Committees (DMCs)in respective regions, fill special Forms and take an oath of allegiance to signify compliance to ethics. Also, Regulations 26 and 28 provide for registration of all types of assistance intended for disaster victims with the DMCs.

The field findings reveal that personnel charged with managing disasters in Kagera understand the need to engage stakeholders through law. Nevertheless, they could not mention specific laws except for the Disaster Management Act of 2015. Also, none of the officials was aware of the repealed Regulations of 2017, except for some State Attorneys who nevertheless admitted not to have accessed them. None was aware of the nexus between the law and humanitarian responders.

Further, none of the respondents (except for the Deputy Attorney General, State Attorneys in Dodoma and some personnel at the DMA) were aware of the place of individual humanitarian responders in the national and international legal frameworks.   However, all respondents from government supported the idea of government screening humanitarian responders before permitting them to engage directly in disaster relief operations. They argued that if not checked some individuals purporting to provide assistance may be detrimental to the interests of victims and government. Incidentally a few respondents from the villages and NGOs in Kagera also supported this view.

All respondents noted that during the Kagera earthquake, individuals aided victims before formal government approval and without government vetting the assistance. Victims also acknowledged support offered by relatives, neighbours and other individuals prior to government intervention and in some cases, they continued helping even after government's order to stop them.

CONCLUSION
The article has analyzed the link between humanitarianism and disaster management in Tanzania's policy and legal framework, tracing its historical development and revealing how the national and international policy and legal instruments reflected this nexus. We have established

that Tanzania has ratified disaster management related international and regional legal instruments recognizing humanitarianism responders.

Our review of Tanzania's disaster management policy and legal frameworks reveal that it is does not appreciate humanitarianism actors in disaster management. Most of the officials charged with implementing the disaster management legal framework and respondents were not aware of the repealed laws that set out the role of individual humanitarian actors.

We have noted that the Disaster Management Policy tries to refer to humanitarian actors. However, it still needs to be improved to create an enabling environment for humanitarian responders to effectively engage in disaster operations. Further, findings reveal that policies in countries in East Africa, for example Kenya, acknowledge the critical relationship between humanitarianism respondents and governments in disaster operations.

In terms of the law, the new Disaster Management Act of 2022 and Regulations made under it do not recognize humanitarian actors. Thus, they are retrogressive in this regard. They are also not easily accessible. Only a few stakeholders we interviewed, including government officials, knew of the existence of the repealed 2017 Regulations.

Further, the Disaster Management Act of 2022 and its Regulations are written in Kiswahili in compliance with the law, making it difficult for some stakeholders to comprehend, unless with aid of unofficial translations.[82] Paradoxically the enactment of the Act and Regulations were not preceded with a review of the Policy. Thus, the government's approach in this regard is awkward as policies usually set the foundation for legislation.

RECOMMENDATIONS
The existing legal and policy framework of Tanzania needs to be reviewed further to adequately address the humanitarianism-disaster management nexus. The unfriendly terms in the Policy should be deleted and replaced as is in the case in Kenya.

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[82] Section 4 (1) of the Written Laws (Miscellaneous Amendments) Act, No. 1 of 2021 provides that the language of the laws in the United Republic of Tanzania shall be Kiswahili.

The Regulations made under the new law should also be reviewed to reflect current trends at the international and regional planes, including the Sendai Framework. The National Disaster Management Plan, which recognizes indigenous knowledge systems as one of the nexuses between disaster preparedness, response and management and reflected in the repealed 2017 Regulations, should be emulated throughout.

Also, the Attorney General should translate the Disaster Management Act of 2022 and its Regulations into English to enable stakeholders at national and international levels to understand the disaster management legal framework thoroughly, rather than depend on unofficial translations.[83] All stakeholders must be able to understand such reports.

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[83] The Attorney General can do this under section 33 of the Written Laws (Miscellaneous Amendments) Act No. 3 of 2020 and section 4 (3) of the Written Laws (Miscellaneous Amendments) Act No. 1 of 2021.

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Relationship between Psychological Contract Breach and Affective Commitment among Public University Academicians in Tanzania: The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT
This study examined the effect of two job attitudes – perceived psychological contract breach and job satisfaction on affective commitment as well as whether job satisfaction mediates the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. A cross-sectional explanatory research design was used involving a sample of 223 academicians drawn from five public universities in Tanzania. Multiple regression analysis techniques were used to examine the effect of psychological contract breach and job satisfaction on academicians' affective commitment to their respective universities. The mediation role of job satisfaction was tested using Andrew Hayes' Process Macro 4.0. The results show that the two predictors explained about 62 percent of the variance in affective commitment where psychological contract breach and jobs satisfaction have, respectively, statistically significant negative and positive effects. Job satisfaction, in addition to being the most influential predictor, mediates significantly, but partially, the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. The study concludes that while psychological contract breach negatively affects the academicians' affective commitment, part of this effect is indirect through job satisfaction. It, therefore, recommends that honoring psychological contracts is important for cultivating affection and identification of academicians with their universities, and that these outcomes would be enhanced if job satisfaction-enhancing measures are also stepped up.

Keywords*: psychological contract breach, job satisfaction, affective commitment, universities, mediation.*

INTRODUCTION

The roles of universities in socioeconomic development are universally acknowledged as those of teaching, researching and service to society (Cloete & Maassen, 2015; Compagnucci & Spigarelli, 2020; Ekwall-Sundby, 2021; Morphew *et al*., 2018). Universities' superior performance is a function of the commitment of their academic staff both to the profession and to their universities (Aboramadan *et al*., 2021; Nazir & Islam, 2017). The irreplaceability of their competencies and experiences provides the universities with a competitive advantage (Shrand & Ronnie, 2019) and success (Lovakov, 2016). Being at the core of the university's operations (Vassigh, 2017), academicians influence the quality of teaching and learning as well as that of knowledge creation, which in turn enhances the contribution that these universities make to society (Compagnucci & Spigarelli, 2020). Therefore, developing and sustaining the right number and quality of academicians committed to their universities is key to enhancing the latter's sustainability.

Overall, having employees who are committed to their organizations is important because it has been shown empirically that organizational commitment is linked to positive organizational outcomes such as job performance (Mansoor *et al*., 2022), profitability and competitiveness (Ramay & Ramay, 2012), reduced absenteeism and turnover intentions (Lamber *et al*., 2015), among others.

The concept of organizational commitment has evolved over time. While commitment refers to "the force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target" (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), organizational commitment refers to "the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement, in a particular organization" (Porter *et al*., 1974, p.604). Mowday *et al*. (1982) identify the characteristics of organizational commitment as (a) a strong belief, in and acceptance of, the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) strong intent, or desire, to remain with the organization.

Subsequently, Meyer and Allen (1991) identify three dimensions of organizational commitment. The first is "affective commitment" – the employees' emotional attachment to, recognition/identification with, and involvement in, the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990), or the positive feeling of the same (Meyer & Allen, 1984). The second dimension is

"continuance commitment" - the choice to stay in an organization due to the perceived cost of not to, and it represents the calculation and comparison of the cost of leaving against the desire to continue membership with the organization based on the profitable benefits gained (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The last dimension is "normative commitment" – the employees' feeling of an obligation to stay with the organization regardless of what it offers them (Meyer & Allen, 1997) because they feel a sense of duty, responsibility and obligation towards the organization based on internalized moral beliefs (Balassino & Salles, 2012). The three dimensions are correlated with each other (Cohen, 2014), and have different consequences in terms of work behaviour (Horta *et al.*, 2019; Meyer *et al.*, 2002), hence the justification for using organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct in empirical studies.

However, the present study focused on affective commitment because, in addition to being the essence of the organizational commitment construct, it also serves as the base for organization commitment theories (Mercurio, 2015). Moreover, affective commitment has been shown to have stronger relationships with positive work outcomes (Nkhukhu-Orlando *et al.*, 2019), and more effect on the individuals' perceptions (Mercurio, 2015), than both the continuance and normative commitment, which focus more on rewards/benefits and obligation (Randall *et al.*, 1999). The continuance and normative commitment signal obligation because individuals commit to the organization out of feeling the obligation to do so either because of the perception of investment value they might lose if they leave (continuance) or because they feel the need to return the investment the organization has made on them over time (normative). This study, therefore, focused on the academicians' commitment to their universities that arise from affectionately and emotionally identifying themselves with the universities' goals and values, i.e., the affective commitment.

The power of organizational commitment as a source of organizational outcomes has led to a growing research effort to populate its antecedents. The literature identifies such antecedents to include, among others, psychological contract breach (Antonaki & Trivellas, 2014; Matoka, 2020) and job satisfaction (Bennett, 2019; Cherian, Alkhatib & Agarwal, 2018; Chordiya *et al.*, 2017; Markovits *et al.*, 2010). A psychological contract breach refers to an employee's perception that his/her employer has failed to honour one or more obligations associated with perceived

mutual promises (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2006). Although these contracts are unwritten, employees would reciprocate with less commitment to their organizations when they perceive these contracts as having been breached by the employer. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, is the employee's positive assessment of his/her job (Weiss, 2002). It is "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values" (Locke, 1969), short of which it results in job dissatisfaction – "the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values" (p.317). It is an employee's self-assessment of the extent to which actual outcomes of various aspects of the job match their expectations. The degree of any mismatch triggers various positive and negative attitudinal and behavioural responses by employees, such as commitment, turnover intentions and absenteeism (Aboramadan, 2021; Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

Past researches linking organizational commitment to psychological contract breach and job satisfaction individually are many and vary in context. Studies by Amoah *et al.* (2021) on a sample of teachers in private and public basic schools in Ghana, Ampofo *et al.* (2022) on a sample of frontline staff from small-sized hotels in Ghana and Matoka (2020) on a sample of academicians from five public universities in Tanzania, all found a negative and statistically significant effect of psychological contract breach on organizational commitment. Moreover, studies have reported a negative and significant impact of psychological contract breaches on job satisfaction. See, for example, Ihsan *et al.* (2020) on a sample of university staff in Pakistan, Milanović *et al.* (2018) on a sample of employees from a manufacturing firm in the Serbia Republic, Mensah and Koomson (2021) on a sample of medical doctors in Ghana, and Collins and Beauregard (2020) on a sample of medical doctors in Ireland. In addition, other studies have reported a positive and significant effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. See, for example, Al-Hussein (2020) on a sample of nurses in India, Ashraf (2020) on a sample of academicians from private universities in Bangladesh, Bashir and Gani (2020) on a sample of university academicians in India, Bennett (2019) on a sample of fast-food restaurant employees in the Caribean, Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) on a sample of banking sector employees in Lebanon, and Gultekin (2022) on a sample of public sector forest engineers in Turkey. Others include Jonathan, Darroux, and Massele (2013) and Johnathan, Darroux and Thibeli (2013), both on samples of secondary

school teachers in Tanzania, Saridakis *et al*. (2018) on a large sample of employees in Britain, exploring methodological and estimation differences, and Valaei and Razael (2016) on a sample of ICT-SMEs employees.

From the afore-reviewed studies, a few gaps exist: The first is that despite the importance of affective commitment among academicians in the performance and success of universities, studies on its determinants in higher learning institutions are generally scarce (Wilkins *et al*., 2017) globally and in the African continent (Fako *et al*., 2018). A few exceptions are those of Matoka (2020) who linked it to psychological contract breach and Ashraf (2020) and Bashir and Gani (2020) both of which linked it to job satisfaction. The second gap is that while there have been several studies linking job satisfaction to psychological contract breach in other sectors, little is done in higher education institutions. The third gap is that none of the studies that examined affective commitment in higher learning institutions examined the joint and relative effect of psychological contract breach and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the past research evidence presented in the preceding paragraph suggests that both psychological contract breach and job satisfaction have a significant effect on affective commitment while psychological contract breach also has a significant effect on job satisfaction. According to Field (2018), this evidence suggests a potential mediation of job satisfaction in the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. Job satisfaction as a mediator has also been shown in the relationship between job stress, workload and turnover intentions in universities (Anees *et al*., 2021), job involvement and organizational commitment among banking employees in Jordan (Abdallah *et al*., 2016), and between psychological contract breach and organizational citizenship behaviour among medical doctors (Koomson & Mensah, 2020). However, while job satisfaction has been shown to mediate the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment in the banking sector (Antonaki & Trivellas, 2014) in Turkey, no such studies exist in higher learning institutions globally, and especially in the frontier markets like Tanzania.

This study, therefore, attempted to fill these gaps by examining the relationships between job attitudes of perceived psychological contract breach and job satisfaction and the work outcome of affective commitment in a sample of academicians from five public universities in

Tanzania. The objectives were to determine (i) whether their level of affective commitment to the university is predicted by the two job attitudes of psychological contract breach and job satisfaction, and (ii) whether the effect of perceived psychological contract breach on affective commitment is mediated by job satisfaction. The study borrowed a leaf from two theories - the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958) and the equity theory (Adams, 1965).

According to the social exchange theory, there exists a reciprocal relationship between two parties, which creates obligations in response to the beneficial acts of the other party. This study argues that the academicians' commitment to the university may increase as an obligation on their part (a reciprocal response) to the satisfaction they draw from the job and the university (employer). That is, when academicians feel that their university is engaged actively in policies and human resource management practices that give them satisfaction with their job, they may feel obligated to reciprocate that treatment. Among the ways through which they may do so is by committing emotionally and affectionately to the university. This happens because the reciprocal exchanges between them and their employer are important components of the social exchange between them.

Adams' equity theory, on the other hand, suggests that a perception of equity exists in the exchange relationship at work between employees' input and outputs. It assumes that employees pursue a balance between what they invest (input) in a particular relationship (e.g., time, skills, effort, etc.) and the benefits they gain from it (outputs) (e.g., status appreciation, pay, recognition, etc.). If the input-output balance is disturbed, the employees are pushed to restore it. If inputs are higher than the outputs, the employees tend to restore it by for example, decreasing their investment in the relationship – psychological withdrawal, committing less to the organization's goal and values, or in general, by engaging in negative work attitudes, behaviours and outcomes. From these social exchanges, it is argued that psychological contract breach and job satisfaction will have a negative (positive) effect on affective commitment. It is also argued that the fulfilment of the unwritten contracts may trigger higher affective commitment directly but it may also enhance employees' satisfaction with their job (written promises such as pay promotion opportunities, supervision, working conditions etc.), which in turn leads to higher affective commitment. This situation

fulfils the conditions for a potential mediation effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational commitment (Figure 1).

From the background review presented above, the following hypotheses were specified and tested

H_1.   Perceived psychological contract breach will have a negative effect on affective commitment

H_2.   Perceived psychological contract breach will have a negative effect on job satisfaction

H_3.   Job satisfaction will have a positive effect on affective commitment

H_4.   Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and affective commitment.

The study contributes to the organizational commitment' literature in higher education in several ways. It contributes empirical evidence from public university academicians in a frontier market on (i) the job attitudes of psychological contract breach and job satisfaction as predictors of affective commitment; and (ii) job satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. In doing these, the study also contributes evidence, from the stated context, in support of both the social exchange and the equity theories.
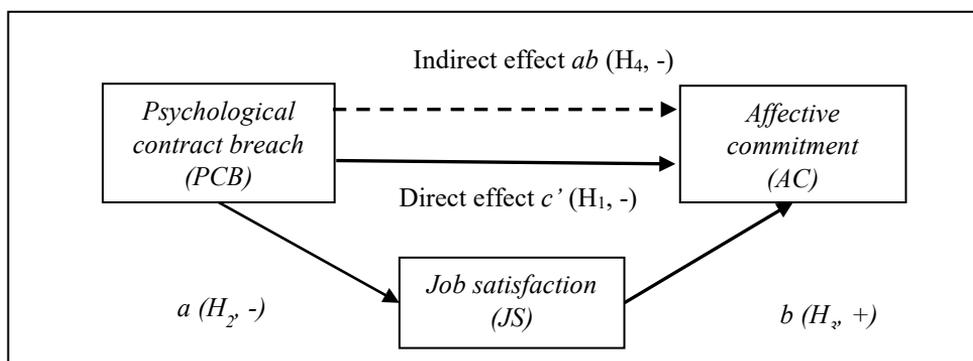

Figure 1: Conceptual framework

METHODOLOGY
Sampling Techniques

Anchored in the positivist philosophy and deductive approach, the study adopted a cross-sectional explanatory research design with a survey strategy to collect the primary data required to confirm the hypotheses. It

drew participants from selected public universities in Tanzania. As of January 2020, there were 43 university institutions in Tanzania – 30 Universities (12 public and 18 private) and 13 university colleges (4 public and 9 private) (TCU, 2020). However, the study focused on public universities, and based on size and age, only the big five universities were targeted – namely, the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA), The Open University of Tanzania (OUT), Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences (MUHAS) and Mzumbe University (MU). Despite being a big university, the University of Dodoma was left out not only for being newer but also for logistics reasons. These big and older public universities were targeted not only because they are the universities with a significant number of academicians but also because they have a mixture of short and long-serving academicians. They are viewed as universities with well-established human resource management systems. This implies that finding a significant level of affective commitment among their academicians may reflect their experiences on the job and their systems being developed and supported. The academicians were conveniently sampled. The convenient sampling method was considered the best-fit method to mitigate the challenges of accessibility/availability of academic staff (during visits) due to the nature of their work schedules (Etikan *et al*., 2016). It was not easy to find all academic staff present in their duty stations as some were on long study leave, on annual leaves, on short training or attending seminars and conferences. Moreover, others were on other university activities like conducting research and consultancies out of their duty stations. Li (2014) recommends convenience sampling as a preferred method for sampling participants from a population of individuals with irregular work schedules and unfixed workplaces. Thus, academicians who were found in their offices and willing to participate were given the questionnaires to fill out. The filled questionnaires were left at an agreed-upon point for collection later on. The academicians were fully informed that participation was voluntary. Besides, they were fully informed that all of their responses would be confidential and that the results of the analysis would be reported in aggregate terms.

Variables and their Measurements
Psychological contract breach: Psychological contract breach was measured by adapting the global scale with five (5) items from Robinson and Morrison (2000). This scale assessed the respondent's overall perception of how the university has fulfilled or failed to fulfil its

obligations and promises. An example of items from this scale is "Almost all the promises made by the university during recruitment have been kept thus far" (negatively worded). Academicians responded to these items on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The global scale was preferred over both the alternatives (composite and weighted average measures) for its realistic representation of perceived psychological contract breach as well as for its dominance in prior research. For further comparative and preferences among these three measures, see Zhao *et al*. (2007, 656).

Affective Commitment: was measured by eight items (four of them negatively worded) adapted from Allen and Meyer (1990). Sample items were "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university", "I feel as if this university's problems are my own" and, "I think that I could easily become as attached to another university as I am to this one" (negatively worded). Academicians responded to these items on a 7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

Job satisfaction: was measured using the five-item scale (one of them negatively worded) adapted from Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) scale. Sample items included "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job" and "I consider my job rather unpleasant" (negatively worded). Academicians responded to these items on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Data Processing and Analysis
The negatively worded items on each of the three measurement scales - psychological contract breach (3), job satisfaction (1) and affective commitment (4) - served as attention traps. As a result, 35 respondents with zero variability in their responses i.e., the same responses irrespective of the directional wording of the scale items were identified and removed, reducing the sample size to 188 cases. No respondents with out-of-range responses were found using frequency distribution statistics. Eleven items had between 1 and 3 missing values all < 5 percent missing. The Little's (1988) test was used to assess the hypothesis of whether these values were missing completely at random (MCAR), one construct at a time. The hypothesis of data missing completely at random was accepted for the psychological contract breach (χ^2 = 13.93, df = 12, ρ = .305) and job satisfaction (χ^2 = 7.63, df = 15, ρ = .938) but not for the affective commitment (χ^2 = 67.81, df = 35, ρ = .001). Subsequently, the missing

values in both psychological contract breach and job satisfaction were imputed with Expectation-maximization (EM) method. However, for the affective commitment, the nine (9) cases with missing values were identified and trimmed off, reducing the sample to 179 cases. The univariate normality assumption was met as all indicator variables produced skewness values < 2.0 (West *et al.*, 1995).

The scale test for reliability analysis was used to evaluate the internal consistency of each of the three scales, but after the negatively worded indicators were reverse-coded. Optimization by deleting items with potential improvement on Cronbach's alpha resulted in α = .871 for the psychological contract breach (4 items), α = .887 for job satisfaction (2 items) and α = .855 for the affective commitment (4 items). All $α_s$ fell into the good internal consistency range (George & Mallery, 2020) (Table 2). Scale validity was assessed with the Pearson product-moment correlation technique in which bivariate correlation (r) between indicators and scale total scores were computed. All r_s were significant at ρ = .001 and higher than the cut-off points of .075 drawn from the critical values in the Pearson correlation table with a degree of freedom =177, and ρ = .05. This result indicates that all indicators were valid measures of their respective constructs.

Mean scores were computed for each of the three constructs and tested for multivariate outliers, normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity assumptions. Although none of the constructs failed the Mahalanobis Distance cut-off ($χ^2$ = 13.816, df = 2, ρ = .001), two more cases were deleted for failing both of the other two criteria of Cook's Distance and Centered leverage value, reducing the sample to 177 cases. The normality assumption was met based on skewness statistics z < 3.29 (Kim, 2013). The linearity assumption was met (r > .30), and so were the no multicollinearity (VIF = 2.08) (Menard, 2002; Rogerson, 2001) and homoscedasticity (BP LM, $χ^2$ = 1.493, ρ = .474; Koenker, $χ^2$ = 0.977, ρ = .614) assumptions. The final sample of 177 cases and the associated data were subjected to the analysis using multiple regression analysis with the help of IBM SPSS statistics v.26 software, and Process Macro v. 4.0 (Hayes, 2022) to test the hypotheses of the study.

FINDINGS
Participants' profile
The final sample (N=177) involved more middle-aged academicians (65%) followed by senior academicians (27.7%) and young academicians

(7.3%). The age cut-offs used (Table 1) are consistent with those recommended by Yarlagadda *et al*. (2015). Thus, the size of the middle-aged group (30-50) suggests maturity which places them in a better position to partake informatively in the study. Typical of the gender profile of universities' academic staff, male respondents dominated the sample at 74 per cent. The majority (86.7 per cent) had family responsibilities (married) and there was about a fifty-fifty split between PhD holders and those with Master's and Bachelor's degrees (7.4%). Fifty-nine per cent were lecturers and above (with Professors making only 15.3 per cent of the total sample). Lastly, about 28.2 per cent of the sample were participants holding administrative responsibilities. Participants had been on their job for a period ranging from one to 43 years (M = 12.67, S.D. = 8.6) with 64.2 per cent of them having been on the job for 10 or more years.

Table 1. Participants

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
20-30	13	7.3
31-50	115	65.0
51+	49	27.7
Sex		
Male	131	74.0
Female	46	26.0
Marital Status		
Married	150	86.7
Others	23	13.3
Education		
Masters or lower	87	49.4
PhD+	89	50.6
Academic rank		
Assistant Lecturer or lower	72	40.9
Lecturer or higher	104	59.1
Administrative responsibility		
Yes	46	28.2
No	117	71.8
Years of experience		
Min	1	
Max	43	
Mean	12.86	
SD	8.79	

Descriptive and Correlation Statistics

Following the descriptive classification in Albdour and Altarawneh (2014), participants were moderately affectively committed to their respective universities, moderately satisfied with their jobs and

moderately perceived that the psychological contracts between them and their universities were breached (Table 2). Further comparison of the constructs was done considering homogeneity of variance and appropriate post hoc test (age groups only). The older academics (51+ years) were significantly more affectively committed to their universities than their younger (30 or younger) counterparts (Mdiff. = 1.334, p = .034). Academicians with administrative responsibilities were also significantly more affectively committed to their universities than those without such responsibilities (Mdiff. = 0.813, t(161) = 2.798, p = .006). Only the academicians with administrative responsibilities significantly perceived less than those without that their psychological contract with their universities was breached (Mdiff. = -0.494, t(161) = - 2.788, p = .006). Job satisfaction was significantly higher in the older academicians' group than in both the middle group (Mdiff. = 0.579, p = .006) and the younger group (Mdiff. = 1.224, p = .039). Job satisfaction was also significantly higher in male academicians (Mdiff. = 0.55, t(175) = 2.455, p = .015), academicians with a doctorate or higher degree (Mdif = 0.450, t(174) = 2.452, p = .015) and academicians with Lecturer or higher ranks (Mdiff. = 0.503, t(174) = 2.721, p = .007). Only job satisfaction was significantly positively related to academicians' work experience (r = .230, p = .002) representing a low effect (Cohen, 1988).

Table 2. Descriptive, Reliability And Correlation Results

Variable	M	S.D.	α	1	2	3
1. Affective Commitment (k = 4)	4.2	1.693	.855			
2. Psychological Contract Breach (k = 4)	3.22	1.034	.871	-.725***		
3. Job Satisfaction (k = 2)	3.33	1.232	.887	-.731***	-.722 ***	
4. Tenure	12.86	8.79		.132	.002	.230***

***. ρ < .001; ** ρ < 0.01; * ρ < .05 level (2-tailed).

k = number of scale items retained

Multiple Regression Analysis
A multiple regression analysis technique was used to test the ability of the two independent variables of psychological contract breach and job satisfaction to predict levels of academicians' affective commitment to their respective universities. The results (Table 3) show that the total variance in affective commitment explained by the model was 61.6%, F (2, 174) = 139.348, ρ < .001. While psychological contract breach had a statistically significant negative effect on affective commitment (b = -

0.675, t(174) = -6.068, ρ < .001), job satisfaction had a statistically significant positive effect on their affective commitment to their universities (b = 0.596, t(174)= 6.384, ρ < .001). Comparatively, job satisfaction contributed more impact (*beta* = 0.434, p < .001) than psychological contract breach (*beta* = - 0.412, p < .001) on affective commitment.

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analysis Results

	b	SE(b)	beta	t	p-value
Constant	4.385	0.626		7.004	<.001
Psychological contract breach	-0.675	0.111	-.412	-6.068	<.001
Job satisfaction	0.596	0.093	0.434	6.384	<.001
R^2	.616				
F-Stat. (2,174)	139.374				<.001

Mediation Analysis

The study also examined the impact of psychological contract breach on affective commitment as mediated by job satisfaction. It was hypothesized that perceiving the psychological contract with the university as having been breached will negatively predict affective commitment. Additionally, it was hypothesized that job satisfaction will mediate this relationship. Process Macro v. 4.0 (Hayes (2022) was used to test the hypotheses, application details of which are well demonstrated in Field (2018). The results (Figure 2), show that psychological contract breach negatively predicted affective commitment (b = - 1.188, t = - 14.171, p < .001) (The total effect). Analyzing the indirect effect, the results reveal that job satisfaction significantly mediated the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment (ab = - .513, p < .001; 95%CI -.681 to -.351). Psychological contract breach negatively affected job satisfaction (b = - .860, t = - 13.639, p< .001) and job satisfaction in turn positively affected affective commitment (b = .596, t = 7.040, p < .001). Nevertheless, the results also suggest that even after accounting for the mediating role of job satisfaction, psychological contract breach still had a significant impact on affective commitment (b = -.675, t = -6.548, p < .001). Job satisfaction accounted for 43.2 percent of the total effect. The findings provide some evidence that academicians who perceive their psychological contracts with their respective universities as having been breached are less likely to identify, and develop affection, with them because they tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs. Nevertheless, academicians' mere perceived psychological

contract breach still contributed negatively and significantly to their affection and identification with their universities beyond what was accounted for by job dissatisfaction. Thus, these results indicate that job satisfaction significantly mediated, but partially the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. Put differently, job satisfaction reduced the negative effect of perceived psychological contract breach on academicians' level of affection and identification with their respective universities. There could, therefore, be other potential mediators to include in the model in addition to job satisfaction.

DISCUSSION

The present study examined the relationship between two job attitudes (psychological contract breach and job satisfaction) and one behavioural outcome - affective commitment among academicians in five public universities in Tanzania. The objectives were to assess whether the two job attitudes significantly predict the academicians' affective commitment and whether job satisfaction mediates the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. Based on the reviewed theoretical and empirical literature, four hypotheses were developed and tested and all were supported.
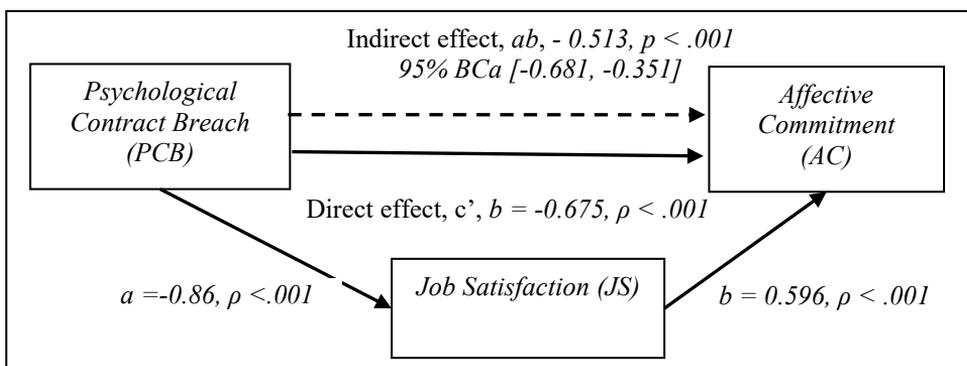
Figure 2: The Indirect effect

From the descriptive statistics, academicians were found to have moderate psychological contract breach perceptions, job satisfaction and affective commitment (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014). Older academicians as well as those who had administrative roles were significantly more committed to their universities than those who were younger and had no administrative roles, respectively. These findings are consistent with the results reported by Anthun and Innstrand (2016).

Anthun and Innstrand associated the findings with the notion that older academicians have a favourable position which is graced with tenured status and better working conditions. Perceived psychological breach was significantly lower among the academicians with administrative roles than among those without such roles. Job satisfaction was significantly higher in older academicians than those in each of the other two age groups, in male than in female academicians, in doctorate holders and lecturers or higher rank than in their respective counterparts. Furthermore, job satisfaction was significantly positively correlated with academicians' work experience (in years).

Job satisfaction was found to be a significant positive predictor of affective commitment. The finding implies that academicians who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to develop emotional attachment and affection to their universities, supporting hypothesis H_2. The findings are similar to those reported in previous studies, e.g., Chordya *et al*. (2017), Jonathan, Darroux, and Massele (2013), and Jonathan Darroux and Thibeli (2013).

The study also found that both the psychological contract breach and the job satisfaction significantly negatively and positively affected affective commitment, respectively, supporting hypotheses H_1 and H_3. These findings imply that both job attitudes are important predictors of the academicians' affective commitment to their universities. The results on each of the links of psychological contract breach - job satisfaction and job satisfaction – affective commitment lend support to the social exchange theory which posits that academicians would report a lower satisfaction with their jobs the more they perceive a breach has occurred in their psychological contracts with their universities. It also posits that academicians are more likely to develop more (less) affection and emotional attachment with the university as a reciprocation to their feeling of being satisfied with their job (perceiving a breach of their psychological contract). Support is also offered to the equity theory. That is, the employees commit more to their universities (inputs) if they feel satisfied or perceive their psychological contract breach is fulfilled (outputs) to restore the balance.

Job satisfaction was found to significantly but partially mediate the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. These findings, in addition to confirming hypothesis H_4, are

also consistent with previous studies, for example, Antonaki and Trivellas (2014). The findings are consistent with those that assessed the mediation effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and other work attitudes and outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviour (Koomson & Mensah, 2020), work engagement (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014), and workplace deviance (Balogun *et al*., 2016). These findings are new in Tanzania as none had been done on the trio, let alone in the higher education sector. Likewise, the findings on the psychological contract breach – job satisfaction link are also new in Tanzania

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concludes that psychological contract breach has a negative and significant effect on job satisfaction and the two, respectively, have a significant positive and negative effect on affective commitment, with job satisfaction contributing the most impact. It also concludes that job satisfaction significantly but only partially mediates the relationship between psychological contract breach and affective commitment. This finding of partial mediation signals the possibility that there are more potential mediators than just job satisfaction. Despite that, the present findings of job satisfaction's partial mediation may imply that honouring psychological contracts is good for cultivating affection and identification of academicians with their universities, but these outcomes would be enhanced if job satisfaction-enhancing measures are also stepped up. In so doing, job satisfaction would reduce the negative impact that a perceived psychological contract breach has on affective commitment. Moreover, the fact that the two variables only explained under 61.6 percent of the variance in affective commitment, more predictors could be at play. Likewise, following the findings that job satisfaction only partially mediates the relationship calls for the identification of other potential mediators.

The study has an important implication for human resources management practices. The affective commitment of academicians needs to be managed and monitored in ways in which an appropriate level is attained and its consequences are amplified (Philips & Connell, 2003). The finding implies that when an academician identifies and develops an affection with the university especially a doctorate holder, lecturer and above, or a leader, he/she is more likely to lead, develop and support others towards the fulfilment of the fundamental roles of the university.

Human resource managers should proactively identify and implement practices that encourage staff to like, and commit to, their jobs and their universities. One of the ways to do so is to improve the working environment e.g. rewarding Heads of Department, Faculty/School Deans, and College Principles, who will create a satisfying and empowering environment. Initiatives for academic staff training and development as well as research support are called for. Through such measures, the perception of psychological contract breach is also reduced among academicians. This will in turn make the academicians more satisfied with their jobs which will subsequently amplify their affective commitment.

The study is not without limitations. The sample is limited to public universities, leaving out private universities as well as non-university higher learning institutions. These exclusions limit the generalization of the results to the universities and more broadly to the higher education sector. The study tested the prediction of affective commitment using only two of the key job attitudes. Other job attitudes include job involvement, work engagement, organizational support (supervisory and managerial) (Robbins & Judge, 2018), as well as organizational politics. Future research should consider these other job attitudes to expand on the literature on the determinants of organizational commitment. An expansion of the mediating variables (simple, serial and parallel) is encouraged and so are the multi-sectoral studies. Given the many important positive consequences of organizational commitment especially among university academicians, a better understanding of the factor that could amplify this potential behavioural outcome is welcome.
Despite such limitations, this study's findings linking the two job attitudes (psychological contract breach and job satisfaction), especially the former to affective commitment and the mediation of job satisfaction are new. They are new, not only to the affective organizational commitment literature in the higher education sector but also from a frontier market – Tanzania. The direct effect of psychological contract breach on affective commitment is not eliminated even after accounting for the effect of job satisfaction as a mediator. It calls for the investigation of other potential mediators.

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Examination of Pedagogical Practices of Secondary School Physical Education Teachers in Tanzania

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ABSTRACT
The study on which this paper is based examined the pedagogical practices of secondary school teachers in teaching Physical Education (PE) in Tanzania. The data from two experienced PE teachers were collected through interview, lesson observation and documentary review and they were analyzed thematically. Findings indicated that PE teachers predominantly use teacher-centred teaching approaches and lecture teaching methods. This teaching approach and methods as used in teaching PE classes did not involve learners and they thus limited students' mastery and denied them the opportunity to practice the intended skills during and after the lesson. Inadequate facilities and equipment for teaching PE also affected teachers' pedagogical practices. It was concluded that the teacher-centred teaching approach dominated in most of the observed PE classes. It is recommended that PE teachers be advised to abide by the requirements of the syllabus. They should be given in-service training on how to apply learner centred teaching approach and to use their local environment to improve their pedagogical practices.

Keywords: *Pedagogical practices, Physical Education, Teaching, teaching approach, Teaching method, Lesson assessment and Classroom environment*

INTRODUCTION

Teachers' pedagogical practices are the prime benchmarks for effective teaching and learning in the classroom. For the case of PE, teachers' pedagogical practice involves the ways instructions are given in the teaching and learning situation. According to Kazungu (2016), teachers' pedagogical practices include topic-specific teaching and learning materials, teaching methodologies, teachers' role and instructional places.

The teachers' ability in choosing the topic specific teaching and learning materials is essential for enhancing an effective teaching and learning process in the classroom. The teaching of PE in Tanzanian secondary schools in particular is carried out under inadequate teaching and learning materials (Marwa, 2015 & Kazungu, 2016). In such a situation, the teacher plays a crucial role in deciding how to use the few available resources.

Choosing an appropriate teaching methodology is another essential component of teachers' pedagogical practice. It involves the choice of the teaching approach and methods that fit for teaching a selected content. According to Huque (2016), there are several teaching approaches including teacher centred, learner centred, content/subject matter centred, dialogic and participatory/constructivist/interactive teaching approaches. Although there are many teaching approaches, the commonly used are traditional and dialogic teaching approaches (Curtis, Brownlee, & Spooner-Lane, 2020, Thomas 2001). According to Grants and Hill (2006), teachers prefer the traditional teaching approach because most teachers believe that this approach is useful for balancing time limitations, resource demands and lack of student self-regulatory skills. The PE syllabus for secondary schools in Tanzania (2005) specifically indicates that teachers have to use participatory teaching approaches in teaching PE in the classroom. Despite the PE syllabus demanding teachers to use participatory teaching approaches in secondary schools, teachers were found to have preferred to use teacher centred teaching approaches dominated by lecture teaching method (Marwa 2015).

Apart from choices of teaching approaches and methods, teachers have the responsibility of preparing schemes of work and lesson plans before going for actual teaching in the classroom. According to Ng'etu (2019), lesson preparation enables teachers to explore, examine, and internalize what and how to teach as well as determine the teaching methodology and teaching materials to be used. In Tanzanian secondary schools, the scheme of work is prepared per term or annually (MoEC, 2005). On the other hand, a lesson plan is prepared per learning unit. In her study, Marwa (2015) observed that only a quarter of interviewed PE teachers in four secondary schools prepared schemes of work, lesson plans and teaching aids. Since Marwa (2015) focused on availability of scheme of work and lesson plan documents, the quality of the content written in the schemes of work and lesson plans remain unknown.

Moreover, teachers are required to deliver the prepared lesson to the students in the classroom. According to Olusanjo (2005), teachers make effective use of selected learning resources, voices, body parts and the ability to demonstrate the skills being taught well and controlling the class during lesson presentation. Teachers are required to indicate the teaching, learning and assessment activities at each stage of their lesson (that is, at introduction, development and consolidation stages). According to Marwa (2015), out of four teachers whose lessons were observed, two demonstrated the skills and linked their lessons with the previous ones and the rest showed poor preparation. Despite the highlights on what teachers should do at the introduction stage of the PE lesson being indicated, it is not known how teachers connect their teaching activities with learning activities as well as assessment tasks in the classroom situation.

Apart from lesson presentations, teachers are supposed to evaluate their lessons to see whether the intended learning objectives were achieved (MoEC, 2005). Although the syllabus directs teachers to evaluate the lesson immediately after the lesson, there is limited data on whether PE teachers evaluate their lessons timely and appropriately. Generally, there is a lacuna of research on teachers' pedagogical practices in teaching PE. In filling that gap, the study on which this paper is based sought to examine the pedagogical practices employed in teaching PE in Tanzanian secondary schools. The objective of this paper is, therefore, to examine teachers' pedagogical practices regarding lesson preparation, delivery, assessment and evaluation in teaching PE in Tanzanian secondary schools.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The study on which this paper is based adopted and modified the combination of Thomas (2013) and Alexander (2001) conceptual frame works. Thomas (2013) compared teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices in teaching PE in secondary schools. His focus was on the teacher centred and learner centred teaching approaches. Although Thomas' research framework is a useful one for understanding teachers' practices, it is limited when analyzing diverse pedagogical practices that go beyond teacher centred and learner centred teaching approaches. It provides little explanation about teaching approaches such as content centred, dialogic and participatory teaching approaches. To fill such a gap, the action-based framework was adopted. The action-based

framework is composed of three analytical concepts: frame, form and act (Alexander 2001). The frame is the immediate context in which the act of teaching is set. It constitutes element such as space, student organization, time, curriculum and habits. Form encompasses the way the lesson is carried out in the class. The act of teaching encompasses tasks, activities, interaction and judgements in the class. The combination of Thomas (2013) and Alexander (2001) conceptual frameworks, guide the researcher to investigate the selection of the teaching approach, lesson preparation, the act of teaching/lesson delivery, lesson assessment and classroom environment as elements of pedagogical practices.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a qualitative research approach and descriptive case study research design to come up with an in-depth examination of teachers' pedagogical practices in teaching PE lessons in two secondary schools in Dar es Salaam region. The two schools were purposively selected by virtue of their experiences in offering PE lessons for more than five years. One teacher from each secondary school was purposively selected by virtue of their experiences in teaching PE for more than two years.

The data were collected through interviews, classroom observation and documentary review. Classroom observations were conducted during the lesson time. The scheme of work and lesson plan documents collected from PE teachers were reviewed. Face to face interviews with selected teachers were done in school compounds. Data were analysed thematically. After transcribing the data, the researcher familiarized himself with the data, coded, generated and reviewed the themes identified. In addition, enumerative information was summarised in tables, boxes and figures.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings from the study are organized in terms of teaching approaches, lesson preparation and lesson presentation, lesson evaluation and classroom environment.

a) Teaching approaches

The findings from classroom observation indicated that PE teachers used teacher centered approaches in delivering classroom instructions. During classroom observation, the researcher noted the following situation:

> Teacher A introduced a new topic without exploiting students' experiences from their surroundings. He dominated most of the talk in the class by mentioning the objectives of the lesson, explaining the content of the topic and asking a few oral questions to the students. Then, he read notes from his mobile phone and jotted down some points on the board. Afterwards, he asked a few oral questions again. He specifically asked leading questions that emphasized the content written on the chalkboard. Moreover, the teacher neither made a lesson assessment nor a summary during the lesson.

The observation made while teacher B was teaching PE revealed the following:

> Teacher B opted for group discussion as a teaching method. He introduced the lesson without linking it with the previous lesson and even to students' experiences. He assigned the task for group discussion. Each group comprised five to six members. Then, the teacher instructed each group to discuss the assigned task for 20 minutes and present it in front of the whole class. Those tasks required students to discuss the meaning of terms and procedures for executing skills in a Handball game. He provided no feedback to students about the presented classroom discussion and lastly, he ended the lesson without summarizing it.

From the above two observations, the following can be deduced. First, teachers dominated most of the conversations by instructing content of the lesson and thus. Students were left as implementers of teachers' instructions. This is a characteristic of the teacher centred teaching approach, which provides little space for learners to be engaged actively into a lesson. Second, there was lack of linkage between environment /experiences with the lesson taught and effective learning. This limits the development of skills and the competence relevant to the learner. Third, feedback is the essential part of the lesson, thus it was not funny, if certain students brought their ideas to the class.

Moreover, the findings from the interview with teachers indicated that learner centred teaching approach was used by some teachers while others used mixed teaching approaches. In narrating the teaching approach, teacher B had this to say:

> I like to use the learner centered teaching approach in the classroom because it allows students to discuss. I often assign them tasks to discuss, and then, I correct those tasks where they made mistakes. If time allows, I assign them more tasks to discuss. Then, I conclude the lesson and assign students to collect equipment in case we are in the field of play (Teacher B, interview 2021).

In contrast, teacher A had this to say:

> Often, I use mixed teaching approaches in teaching my PE students. Here I mean both the teacher-centred and participatory teaching approaches are employed. In fact, I always use mixed teaching approaches because they engage students in the lessons and allow me to make right decisions on how to teach a particular class if the learning situation has changed (Teacher A, interview, 2021).

Furthermore, findings from interviews with teachers indicate that teachers' use learner centred teaching approach in the classroom since it encourages student engagement in the lesson and reduces student boredom. In elaborating the rationale for using the learner centred approach, teacher B explained:

> I use the learner centred teaching approach because if I do everything in the classroom, students get bored. If I explain everything from A-Z for 40 minutes or 80 minutes, I am sure students will be bored (Teacher B, interview 2021).

This extract indicates that teachers use the learner centred teaching approach since it allows students to talk more and less bored in PE classroom during the lesson

Generally, finding revealed variation between what teachers narrate in an interview and what they practise in the classroom. Teachers preach the use of the learner centred teaching approach theoretically but they use the teacher centred teaching approach in the classroom when teaching PE lessons. Teachers dominate PE lessons in the classrooms. As a result, most of the conversations in the class and the lesson is not linked with learners' experiences. Furthermore, teachers provide no feedback to students. According to the conceptual framework, teachers have to select and use the teaching approach that engages students in the lesson. Thomas (2001) and Marwa (2015) found that the teacher centred teaching approach is the dominant teaching approach used in teaching PE.

Teachers used the teacher centred teaching approach when the class size is large or when time is inadequate. Ravitz Becker and Wong (2000) observed that in the transmission teaching approach, students will learn facts, concepts and will understand by absorbing the content of their teachers' explanation or reading explanation from the text and answering related questions.' However, the findings are in line with the PE syllabus for secondary education in Tanzania (2005) which requires teachers to use participatory teaching approaches. Nevertheless, teachers may have mentioned the use of the learner centred teaching approach during the interview as a means of protecting themselves from being sued against not using participatory teaching approach in teaching PE as stipulated in the syllabus.

b) Lesson preparation
In examining the teachers' lesson preparation, the researcher found that the schemes of work and lesson plans were prepared from January up to July 2021. The findings from the observed documents indicated three things: some subject content was skipped, there was unequal distribution of time and mismatch between teachers' activities and learning activities. From their schemes of work, the researcher noted the following:

> In writing the general objective for the ball game, a topic taught to Form three students, teacher B wrote 'to develop moral standard and behaviour over games and sports' instead of writing to develop ability of students to take precautionary safety measures in ball games. Furthermore, teacher B wrote nine specific objectives instead of 37 for ball games and six for Track and Field events instead of 67 events as indicated in the syllabus. Additionally, he allotted 37 hours instead of 36 hours for ball games and 9 hours instead of 36 hours for Track and Field events. In ball games, more time was allocated to volleyball games. That was contrary to the time indicated in the syllabus.

> In volleyball game, a lesson taught in Form Three on 14th April 2021, teacher B wrote the following on the teacher's activities at presentation of new knowledge stage of lesson '*to guide students to execute movement and care of facilities and equipment'* and learning activity as *'students to respond to* participate *in activities.'*

> The running event lesson taught to Form Three on 10th February 2021, teacher A, at introduction stage of the lesson, wrote teacher's activities as *'to guide students to know the position in short and long-distance races'* and student's activity as '*student to listen carefully about the new lesson today.'*

From the above two excerpts, it was revealed that PE teachers wrote specific objectives in their lesson plan documents without considering the element of specificity and attainability. Teachers also skipped some content in their lesson plans. Some topics of interest to teachers were allotted more time than the time indicated in the syllabus. In addition, there was a mismatch between learning activities and teacher's activities in some lessons. As shown in the above extracts, the action verb '*execution*' does not match the action verb '*participate*'. In the same vein, the use of action verb '*know*' does not match with the action verb '*listen*'.

Findings from the reviewed lesson plan documents revealed three observations. First, teachers prepared lesson plans occasionally. The frequency of prepared lesson plans for Forms Three and Four for teacher A from AZ Secondary school and teacher B from JU secondary school since January to July 2021 were counted and computed. The results were shown in Figure 1.
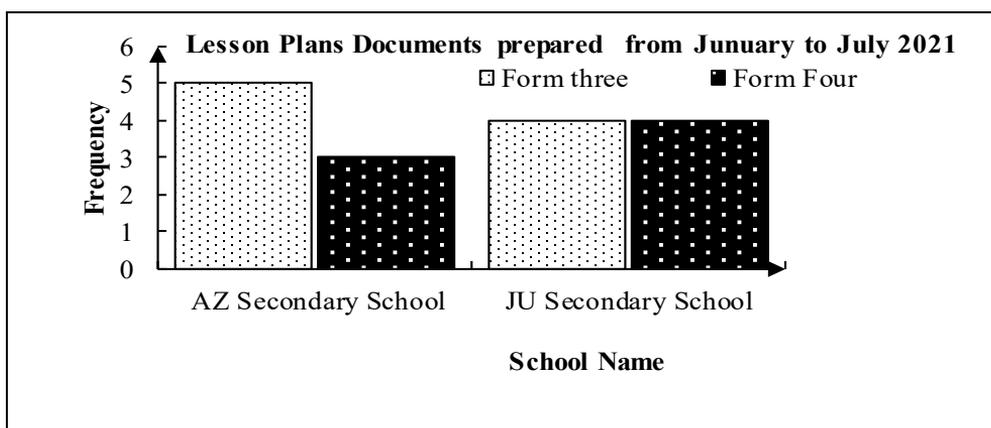
Figure 1: **The frequency of PE lesson plan prepared since January to July 2021**

As shown in Figure 1, PE teachers prepared lesson plans occasionally. The highest frequency was five and the lowest frequency was two per term. The frequencies shown in Figure 1 were against 37 lessons per term as indicated in the PE syllabus for secondary school.

Second, the 'competency' written in some of the reviewed lesson plans did not reflect the tasks shown in their lesson objectives. In reviewing the lesson plan documents, the researcher noted:

In the lesson plan documents prepared for form three, teacher B wrote 'competency' as 'to develop moral standards and behaviour' while the appropriate formulation was 'to show the ability of students to take precautionary safety measures in Hand ball game' (Form three lesson taught on 25th March, 2021).

Teacher A also wrote competency as, 'to demonstrate knowledge on the value of and apply fundamental skills in specific physical exercise, game and sports (Form two lesson, 21st March, 2021). The appropriate formulation could be read as 'the *student should show the ability to describe precautionary safety measures in Netball game*'. In another lesson, the same teacher wrote competency as 'to demonstrate interest to participate regularly in competitive games and sports' (Form Four lesson, 2nd July, 2021). This could be written as '*the student should demonstrate the ability to describe types of field events.*

The above extracts indicated that the 'competency' shown in each of the mentioned lessons did not reflect the objectives in terms of tasks that students should accomplish in the classroom. The competencies lacked specification of the tasks that teachers should expect students to demonstrate when teaching in the classroom.

Third, the lesson objectives written in the reviewed lesson plans were too general. They had no specific tasks that a student should perform in the classroom. In reviewing the lesson plan, the researcher noted that:

In a volleyball lesson taught on 18th January 2021 to Form Three students, teacher B wrote the general objective as 'to develop moral standards behaviour over a game and sports' while writing general objectives was expected to communicate or capture the whole topic on volleyball.

On lesson taught to Form Three on 6th March, 2021, teacher A wrote general objective as 'students should know the distance in running i.e. short, middle and long distance' instead of formulating the objective in accordance with the topic is long distance running.

The above extract indicates that the lesson objectives written in the lesson plan did not match with the specific topics that students should accomplish during a lesson. Apart from the general objectives, some specific objectives indicated no specific tasks that students should perform during the lessons. The review of the specific lesson objectives indicated that:

> In a lesson taught in Form Three, on long distance, teacher A wrote the specific objective that read '*After 80 minutes, every student should be able to explain and practice the middle, short and long distances.*'

The foregoing quote revealed that all running events were included in a single written specific objective. Some of the mentioned running distances were not even in the syllabus for Form Three. The PE syllabus (2005) for Form Three required students to execute skills in positioning, takeoff, acceleration and finishing skills in long distance running events.

Fourth, the findings indicated that there was a mismatch between teacher and learner's activities in the lesson plan documents. The lesson plan documents were reviewed and the following were noted:

> Teacher B wrote teacher's activities at an introductory stage of the Handball lesson for Form Three students as 'to guide discussion on safety measures in Handball' and learner's activities as 'to respond to questions asked by the teacher'. In the reinforcement, reflection and consolidation stages of the lesson, the teacher wrote nothing about the tasks that the teacher should do that would make students discuss and present. At the consolidation stage, the teacher did not show any task that indicates lesson conclusion.

> Teacher A in one of the lessons at presentation stage, wrote teacher's activities as 'to guide demonstration of … and student activities as 'students in small groups to discuss…

In the two extracts above, the action verbs related to teachers' activities did not match with the learners' activities. The action verbs 'demonstrate' and 'discussion' do not match with each other. Demonstration requires the teacher to show while discussion requires the students to share ideas with teachers or with their fellow students. In this case, therefore, the action verbs in teacher's activities did not match with those in learners' activities. These findings imply that teachers ignored to link teachers' activities with learners' activities. Lack of connectivity between teachers' activities and learners' activities at each stage of the lesson influence assessment and evaluation process because it is difficult for teachers to know what students are supposed to do exactly and the extent to students have achieved the expectations.

Findings from the lesson plan documents further indicated that teachers did not fill assessment column in some of their lesson plans. The tasks written in the assessment column also did not match with teaching and

learning activities. In reviewing the lesson plan documents, the researcher noted the following:

> The assessment section of the lesson plan contained no action verbs that could reflect the task given to students. However, it only required student's ability to participate in group discussion (Teacher B, Lesson plan, 2021).

> The assessment content was too simple. For example, the question 'Is the student able to listen carefully?' was too simplistic. In this case, listening was neither in the teacher's activities nor in the learning activities in the lesson plans. Besides, it is not measurable (Teacher A's lesson plan, 2021).

The above excerpts indicated that the PE teachers in those two schools never bothered to link the lesson assessment tasks to their teaching activities and learners' activities in the lesson plans. This implies that teachers faced difficulties in conducting assessment during the lesson since the right action verbs in their assessment plans lacked connection with their planned teaching and learning activities.

Generally, the findings revealed that some teachers in secondary schools pay less attention to PE lesson preparation. They prepare lesson plans occasionally, write learning competency and objectives inappropriately as well as sometimes they skip important parts of the content indicated in the syllabus when preparing their lessons. These practices are contrary to the requirements of the PE syllabus for secondary schools (2005), which requires teachers to prepare clear and attainable lesson objectives. According to the conceptual framework adopted, teachers' preparation includes selection of teaching approach as well as setting lesson objectives, resources and teaching and learning activities as well as assessment activities. Lack of prepared lesson plan documents provides little evidence on whether teachers fulfil their commitments in the class or otherwise.

Lesson presentation
The findings about lesson presentation were confined to learning activities, lesson linkage, interaction, and assessment at various stages of the lesson as described in the following subsections.

i) Learning Activities
Findings from classroom observations indicated that writing notes, listening, skill execution, and responding to teachers' questions were the

prevalent learning activities performed in PE lessons. In all the lessons observed in the classroom, each of the learning activities was counted and its frequencies were computed. The results were as shown in Figure 2.
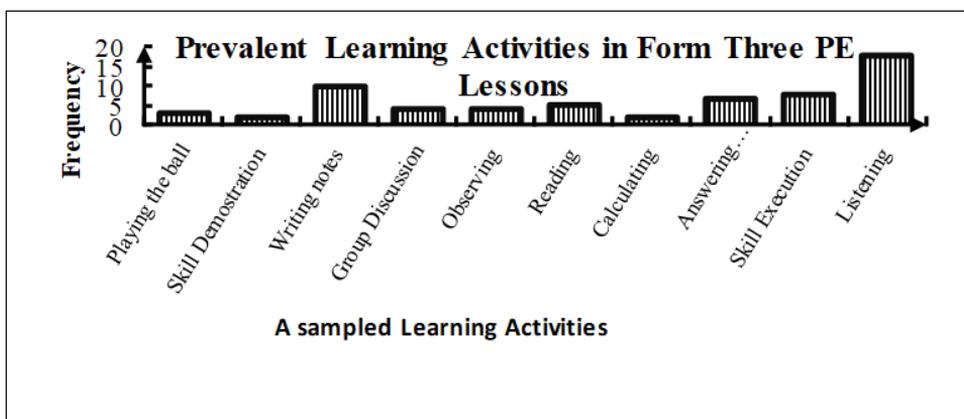
Figure 2: Learning Activities Observed in Form Three PE Lessons
Source: Classroom observation data (July, 2021).

As shown in Figure 2, listening had high frequency since teachers frequently explained the subject content when in the class. This was followed by writing notes where students took notes when the teacher was talking or when writing on the chalkboard. For practical lesson, the dominant learning activity was execution of skill that required students to follow procedures demonstrated by their teachers. Additionally, responding to teachers' questions occurred more frequently since teachers asked oral questions that required students to provide either single answer or short explanations.

ii) Lesson linkage
The findings from classroom observation indicated that teachers did not link their lessons with either previous lessons or students' life experiences. During the classroom observation in PE lessons taught by teachers A and B, the following were observed in schools AZ and JU.

> Yesterday during remedial class, we discussed the introduction to handball, is it? That is a new sub-topic. It is sub-topic under the topic of Ball game. Our topic is called (Teacher's pause) handball (Teacher B, classroom observation, 2021).

As a Form One, you have to know the topics that are taught in PE. The first one is the concept of PE, the second one is… and last eight are on recreation and outdoor activities *(Teacher listed and wrote all Form One topics on the chalkboard)* (Teacher A, classroom observation, 2021).

In the above two excerpts, teachers did not link their lessons with either the previous lessons or life experiences. In this case, teachers dominated the introduction of lesson by either listing subtopics to be accomplished or directly explaining the meaning of terms to the students. This entails that students were mere listeners and remained passive.

iii) Interaction

The findings from classroom observations indicated that the main types of interaction that occurred in the PE lessons were teacher-class interaction followed by teacher-group interaction. The ways teachers interacted in Form Three class are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Section of PE Lesson indicating interaction in the classroom

School AZ		School JU	
Episode	**Conversation**	**Episode**	**Conversation**
1	**Students**: Good morning	200	**Students**: Good morning Sir.
2	**Teacher B**: Good morning	201	**Teacher A**: Have a seat
3	**Teacher B**: Yesterday during remedial time, we had introduction of handball. Is it?	202	Students: Sat on their chairs
4	**Class**: Yes	203	**Teacher A**: As a form one you have to know the topics of PE. The first one is about concept of PE, the second one is…… and eight are recreation and outdoor activities (The teacher listed and wrote on the blackboard all form one topics).
5	**Teacher B**: That is a new topic. It is a subtopic. Now we start handball. Our topic is called…...? Do you remember our topic?	204	**Students**: Taking notes while repeating to mention the topics led by the teacher.
6	The class chanted chorus answers at a low tone of voice. They mentioned 'ball game.'	205	**Teacher A**: Up to this point, how many topics have I listed? *(teacher asked)*. There are … eight topics *(all students responded)*.

7	**Teacher B**: Our topic is Ball game. So now I want to discuss different skills, techniques, rules that are used during playing handball.	206	**Teacher A**: Therefore, today we are going to start with the concept of PE. What is PE? Here there is something called …. You must know. the concept of PE. (The teacher wrote the title on the blackboard and then continued). Before anything, you must know what is PE. You cannot study these concepts because you do not know even their meanings. In PE, we are looking at the meaning of PE.
8	**Class:** Silent	207	**Students**: silent
9	**Teacher B**: So before starting the lesson, we have a guest here (*researcher of this study)*. So introduce yourselves to him.	208	Teacher B: Who can tell us what PE is?
10	**Class**: Each student mentioned his/her name and the class.	209	**Student 1**: PE is the branch of science, which deals with sports and games. It is one of the branches of science similar to other subjects that we study like biology, physics, etc. Those who say that those who study PE are not scientists, it is a lie. Even the meaning itself it is a science, it is a branch of science that deals with games and sports.
11	After students' self-introduction, the teacher assigned the students to do some work and every student went to their previously formed discussion groups.		

The conversations in Table 1 show that teacher - class interactions dominated in the PE classroom. Teachers talked more and gave instructions of the content to the whole class (episodes *3-5* and 203 -205) asked questions (*Episodes 5 and 208*) and monitored class activities and disciplinary cases. The teacher asked leading questions *(episodes 5 and 206)*, which attracted chorus answers, and complete questions that required individual student to answer. Teachers also provided no appropriate feedback on whether students' responses were correct or incorrect. Instead, they repeated the students' responses (episodes 7 and 208). The conversation shown in Table 1 implied the use of direct teaching approach in the class.

iv) Lesson Assessment

The findings from lesson observations indicated that teachers asked questions that led to single answers more frequently and less on questions that led to individual explanations. In a similar vein, the assessment columns in the lesson plans were not filled in some lessons observed and those filled did not contain the action verbs that could link them with the given learning activities. In checking the lesson plan documents, the researcher noted that assessment column was incomplete as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Sampled sections of Teachers A and B Lesson plan (January –July 2021)

Name	Form	Subtopic	Teaching activity	Learning activity	Assessment
Teacher B	III	Volleyball	To guide students in small groups to discuss various techniques, service set up	To discuss in groups about various techniques	Learners participated effectively in group discussion
	IV	Planning and organization of competitive physical activity	To guide students to identify the type of physical activity to be performed'	Students to respond on how to identify the type of fixture	Student to listen and take notes.
Teacher A	III	Running event	Demonstrating how to make running short, middle- and long-distance races	To make a small group and discuss about short, middle- and long-distance races	………………

Source: Field Data (2021)

As shown in Table 2, the assessment tasks shown do not match with the teaching and learning activities. In Volleyball, the 'group discussion' written in the teaching and learning activities column does not match with 'learner's participation in group discussion' written in the assessment column. In handball, the 'identification' written in the teacher's and learning activity columns also does not match with 'student listening' written in the assessment column of a lesson plan. These findings imply that teachers lacked awareness on how to link the tasks in the assessment column with tasks in the teaching and learning activity column of the lesson plan documents. These findings, therefore, are in contrast with Tannehill's (2001) argument that the tasks to be measured should be the same as tasks to be taught and learned.

Findings from interviews revealed that teachers assessed students for preparing them to pass the final examination. On student's success in the classroom, teachers explained how they examined their students. Teachers B said.

> To me, there are two ways of assessing student's success; through examination or performance in a practical session. Through examination, we observe students' success by looking at his/her score in an examination and on performance in a practical session. We observe how students achieved in particular sports' competition. You see directly and conclude that a student is good in executing particular skills in a chosen game (Interview with teacher B, July 2021).

Teacher A also said:

> A successful student is confident, ready to sit for examination at any time regardless of whether it is set by school, district or region. He/she is ready all the time to sit for any form of examination including tests and quizzes (Interview with teacher A, July, 2021).

The two excerpts above showed that, students passing an examination could increase their confidence and readiness to sit for national examination. On this basis, student's achievement is judged based on good performance in their final examination done at the end of study period.

These findings imply that assessment was inappropriately done contrary to the way it is directed by PE syllabus for secondary schools. The syllabus requires teachers to ensure that the 'assessment item takes into consideration a wide variety of outcomes based on the need to achieve general and individual level of competencies. In general, the syllabus shows assessment for learning but as revealed in this study teachers viewed assessment as passing the final examination.

Generally, findings revealed that listening to teachers' explanations, writing notes and skills execution were the prevalent learning tasks that teachers used in teaching PE. Teachers did not link their lessons with either previous lesson or student's life experiences. The prevalent interaction was teacher class interaction whereby the teacher talked more and gave instructions on the content to be given to the whole class and to search for feedback through oral questions. Teachers asked questions that led to single answers rather than explanations. Teachers pay less attention in filling the assessment column in the lesson plan. In the filled ones, the

assessment tasks do not reflect the teaching and learning activities. Teachers elaborated that the main purpose of assessment was to prepare students for final examinations. According to the PE syllabus for secondary school (2005), teachers are directed to conduct assessments at each stage of the lesson. Contrary to the PE syllabus requirement, teachers view lesson assessment as tool for preparing students for their final examination. The examination-oriented assessment limits student creativity and ability to solve real life problems and encourages teachers to teach for the examination instead of teaching for competencies and skills.

Lesson Evaluation
The findings from the reviewed lesson plan documents from the two PE teachers indicated that the statement of the lesson evaluation was too general. It lacked connection with specific objectives as well as the teaching and learning activities done in the classroom. The common phrases in the observed lesson plans were 'The lesson was understood' (Teacher B, lesson plan, July 2021) and 'A larger percentage of the class understood the lesson because they participated in the lesson' (Teacher A, lesson plan, July 2021).

When teachers were asked to clarify on the purpose of lesson evaluation, they explained that the purpose of lesson evaluation is to identify the level of students' understanding of the lesson in a classroom. In elaborating the purpose of lesson evaluation, teachers said the following:

Teacher B said:

> I sometimes evaluated the lesson after completing teaching lesson in the classroom. As you asked me about the purpose of evaluating my lessons, I think the purpose is to find out the extent to which students have understood the lesson. At the end of the lesson, I have to show the percentage of students who understood the lesson well. For instance, I can write that a certain percentage (let us say 60, 80 or 90) of students understood the lesson well. Then I recommended that for those 10% who showed little understanding of the lesson I will help them during remedial class hours or in the next coming lesson (Teacher B, interview July 2021).

Teacher A added that:

> Yah! You cannot end the lesson without showing whether the lesson was understood or not. I as a PE teacher, have to say the purpose of lesson evaluation is to show how much students have understood the lesson.

> Usually, I write lesson evaluation, just after the lesson to show areas of the lessons to which students have shown some signs of difficulties (Teacher A, interview, July 2021).

The two excerpts above indicate that teachers evaluated lessons for the purpose of identifying the level of students' understanding of the lesson. They frequently use percentage of students who understood the lesson as a yardstick for judging the level of students' understanding. Higher percentages mean high level of understanding (Excerpt1). The area of difficulties noted during the lesson is another indicator that the teacher used in the classroom (excerpt 2). These findings imply that teachers evaluate lessons without identifying whether the intended objectives written in their lesson plan were achieved or not.

When teachers were asked how they measured the level of their students' understanding when teaching in the classroom, they said that it was through asking students oral questions whereby correct answers from students were judged as indicator for students' understanding. On elaborating students understanding of a lesson, teacher A said:

> I discovered that 60% of the class understood the lesson. They responded well to my questions. They mentioned correct answers, though not all of them responded, but the majority answered my questions correctly. Even in class presentation, most of the students understood the lesson. Yah, for this, I am sure (Teacher A, July 2021).

The above quote indicated that the teacher used oral questions to test students' level of understanding. This implies that teachers mixed lesson evaluation with lesson assessment. Oral questions are one of the tools for assessing the lesson. Lesson assessment always shows the indicators for lesson evaluation. This means teachers have to collect all evidence on whether the intended lesson tasks had been accomplished or not.

When teachers were probed to describe the criteria used to evaluate PE lessons, they responded that they used test, quizzes and examinations. On the criteria used for lesson evaluation, one of PE teacher explained:

> I use tests to assess if students in a class have understood this topic. I want to know how much students understood the lesson well. I use examination as means to observe if 80% of the students in my class understood lesson (Teacher B, Post class interview, July 2021).

The excerpt above indicates that teachers use examinations to test students' understanding of the lesson. Although teachers mentioned

examination as a tool for assessing the level of their students understanding of the lesson, in actual lesson session, the examination is difficult to apply due to limited time.

Generally, findings revealed that PE teachers show little attention on the best way to write lesson evaluation in their lesson plan documents. The sampled lesson evaluation statements lacked a link with lesson objectives and lesson assessment. The common phrases in the observed lesson plans included "understanding of the lesson'' expressed either in percentage or number of students in the class. The findings further revealed that the purpose of lesson evaluation to teachers was to test students' understanding of a given lesson. According to conceptual framework, teachers should develop lesson evaluation from the results of lesson assessment done at every stage of the lesson. Teachers in this study mentioned correct responses of oral questions as a tool for lesson evaluation rather than lesson assessment. In addition, tests, quizzes and examinations are used as the criteria for lesson evaluation. On this basis, teachers interchangeably use lesson evaluation with lesson assessment. Additionally, teachers interchangeably use lesson evaluation with evaluation of the programme whereby the former is always done immediately after the teaching of the lesson and the latter is always done after certain specific time such as mid or end of the term.

Classroom Environment

The classroom environment delineates four wall room or play ground where teaching of PE lessons take place. Findings from teachers' interviews concerning availability and condition of playgrounds indicated that there was shortage of playgrounds for some sports and poor state of the available playgrounds in secondary schools. Teacher B in elaborating availability and state of playgrounds in secondary schools had this to say:

> Our handball court is not good. You can bounce a ball on hard surface. The dribbling could have been good if our court had hard surface. But you could see the ball going this way and that way since our court is full of sand. Ok, let us continue, the students will learn slowly (Teacher B, post class interview, July 2021).

Teacher A also had this to say:

> For sure, playgrounds for games like Basketball and Volleyball are challenging in this school. Our school has no well-constructed Basketball court. So, we hire from one higher education institution (*Name concealed*). It takes half an hour

until our students arrive to the playground and after the game, they go back to school late. Sometimes, they miss some other lessons that follow after PE sessions (Teacher A, post class interview, July, 2021).

The above quote indicates that the condition of playground was not conducive for practical lessons. Every open space in school compounds is almost a built area (excerpt 2). Teachers in curbing shortage of sports facilities hire sports facilities from nearby education institution but they consume more time as they walk from their school to another education institution to search for best playgrounds.

Generally, findings revealed the shortage and poor condition of playgrounds in secondary schools. Open spaces around schools used for new building structures. Shortage of and poor conditions of playgrounds likely limit appropriate demonstration and performance of sports skills during PE lessons. These findings, therefore, concur with Tarigan, Priyono and Rahajo (2018) who found that there were insufficient facilities and infrastructure for teaching PE in Paschal secondary schools in Hanoi, Vietnam. For teachers to facilitate the teaching of PE in such a situation, they are encouraged to be creative and innovative.

CONCLUSION

Based on the objectives, it is pertinent to conclude that PE teachers did not follow the directives given by the PE syllabus for secondary schools (2005). The findings from interviews revealed that teachers preach the student-centred teaching approach theoretically but practically they use the teacher centred teaching approach when teaching in the classroom. The dominant teaching method was lecture. The dominant teachers' activities were explanation and oral questions and very few demonstrations. The students' prevalent activities were writing notes, listening, answering oral questions as well as practising unguided sports activities. The assessment in the classroom is not focused and most of the questions asked questions aimed at making students prepare for the final examination rather than mastery of skills. Teachers also prepared their schemes of work and lesson plan documents occasionally.

Moreover, teachers do not link their current lessons with their previous ones or life experiences when teaching in the classroom. During lessons, the common interaction was teacher class interaction and teacher group interaction. In addition, the poor condition of sports facilities in school

compounds affects teachers' pedagogical practices. Generally, there are poor teachers' pedagogical practices in teaching PE in secondary schools in Tanzania.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on study findings, it is recommended that:

a) Teachers should improve their pedagogical practices by abiding by the requirements of the syllabus and making effective use of their local environment. They have to take time to recall and improve the essential elements of their pedagogical practices.

b) In order to improve teachers' pedagogical practices, the teaching facilities including playgrounds for various sports should be built in all schools offering PE.

c) The quality assurance officers should pay attention to the quality of lesson preparation documents, lesson presentation and evaluation. They should pay special attention to appropriate lesson objectives, teaching/learning and assessment activities as well as lesson evaluation. Teachers' choices on teaching approaches should tie with those recommended in the syllabus for PE, that is, the student-centred teaching approaches.

d) Teachers should put emphasis on the use of the student/learner centred teaching approaches in the classroom. In each lesson, teachers should develop skills on how to include learners learning diversity into their respective lessons.

e) Training is needed for PE teachers to acquaint them with competence-based curriculum (CBC) in order to use appropriate pedagogical practices needed for imparting PE competencies to students.

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Financial Literacy Variables in Microfinance Institutions studies: A Systematic Literature Review

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ABSTRACT

The study applied a systematic literature review to explore financial literacy variables in microfinance institution (MFI) studies. Using manual content analysis, 73 studies identified variables covered in MFIs' financial literacy literature. The study revealed that the majority of scholars have assessed the role of financial literacy in promoting clients' savings, money and mobile money usage, loan repayment and investment. However, few studies focused on variables such as outreach, budgeting, interest rates and women's empowerment. In most of the reviewed studies, regression data analysis was used. The findings indicate that there is a dearth of MFI studies that use the term "financial literacy" and its sub-variables. Furthermore, there are no studies that have examined how financial literacy impacts MFI performance variables such as sustainability, profitability, efficiency, credit risk management and corporate governance. In addition, there are a few studies that link financial literacy with MFI theories. Generally, the findings indicate that variables related to financial literacy are not adequately covered in MFI studies. The study recommends the formulation of policies that promote financial literacy training for formal and informal MFIs. This is the first comprehensive systematic review to examine financial literacy variables in MFI studies.

Keywords: *Systematic literature review, financial literacy, microfinance institutions*

INTRODUCTION

The microfinance concept elucidates the types of financial services such as micro savings, microcredits, money transfers and microinsurance offered to clients (Sayankar and Mali, 2022). Microcredit refers to small loans offered to individuals who are financially excluded. Microcredit and microfinance existed after human beings became civilized. Microcredit and microfinance existed after human beings became civilized. However,

modern microfinance commenced in 1976 when Muhammad Yunus established the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh (Gutiérrez-Nieto and Serrano-Cinca, 2019). Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) through job and financial services provision, contribute significantly to the growth of the economy of developing countries (Robert et al. 2013). Globally, approximately 1.7 billion people do not have access to formal financial services, but are served by MFIs (Malhotra and Baag, 2021). Millions of the poor lack access to financial services, which contradicts the United Nations Millennium Sustainable Development Goal number one. A major objective of MFIs is to increase financial inclusion, reduce poverty, and improve the living conditions of the poor (Hasan and Hoque, 2021).

Financial literacy is achieved when investors and consumers advance their knowledge and become aware of financial opportunities and risks. Financial literacy enhances the proper choice of financial services and hence promotes clients' financial wellbeing (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development -OECD, 2005). Financial literacy enhances access to financial services both in rural and urban areas (Hasan and Hoque, 2021). Remund (2010) conceptualized finance literacy into five groupings which are financial knowledge, financial communication ability, personal finance management aptitude, proper financial making decisions and effective future financial needs planning. Huston (2010) attested that scholars are challenged to operationalize the concepts of financial literacy. According to Malhotra and Baag (2021), financial literacy does not only explicate the understanding of financial concepts and their applications but also aptitude for managing personal financing, and confidence in making appropriate financial decisions. Many scholars equate financial literacy with an understanding of financial concepts and their applications (OECD, 2013; Wanjiku and Muturi, 2015).

Financial literacy is used to identify, evaluate, compare and select the appropriate financial products such as credit cards, investment, savings and microcredits. Moreover, it protects financial service users against fraud, abuse vulnerability, bankruptcy and delinquency (OECD, 2005; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2013). Financial knowledge also promotes women's empowerment, clients' livelihood realization, firm sustainability, economic growth and social economic development (Bijli, 2012, Refera et al., 2016; Premarathne and Abeysekera, 2020).

A key objective of financial literacy is to improve the financial status of citizens in developed and developing countries and to alleviate poverty (Garg and Singh, 2018; Banciu et al., 2022). Since there exist diverse financial products and services both in developed and developing countries, financial literacy overcomes the challenge of improper selection of financial products (Refera, et al., 2016; Garg and Singh, 2018). According to Bernanke (2011), the evolution of new financial products in the contemporary world forces people to update their financial literacy skills.

Citizens of both developed and developing countries face the challenge of poor financial literacy, despite the problem being much larger in developing countries, particularly in Africa and Asia (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2013). In 2014, Sri Lanka recorded 35% of financially literate adults. The MFIs worked tirelessly to improve this rate through seminars, training and mobilization of community committees and credit societies. Obstacles faced by the financial literacy programmes in Srilanka were inadequate budget, competition in MFI industry, poor attitudes, poor participation of MFI clients and regulatory bodies' ineffectiveness (Premarathne and Abeysekera, 2020). The MFIs imparted financial literacy to poor clients in India (Vijaykumar and Naidu, 2016; Sayankar and Mali, 2022). In this systematic review, the researcher sought to assess the variables of financial literacy in microfinance institutions studies. The researcher also assessed whether scholars specify MFI type in their research titles. Moreover, the researcher determined the data analysis methods for MFI financial literacy studies, analyzed the limitations of the literature and recommends areas for future research.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed a systematic literature review to conclude the phenomena under study. Garg and Singh (2018) used this method to analyze the youth financial literacy variables. This study assessed the coverage of financial literacy variables in microfinance institutions studies. The study focused on the link between financial literacy or its components (financial knowledge, attitudes and behavior) and MFI variables. In analyzing data, the researcher examined financial literacy dimensions, variable occurrences in titles and within articles, and data analysis methods. Therefore, the review exposes the adequacy of variables coverage and depicts the direction of future research.

To analyze the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, only articles with the terms "financial literacy" and "microfinance institutions" were considered. However, MFI studies that contained at least one component of financial literacy were selected for review. The majority of the articles were found in Google Scholar where raw search generated a total of 17,700 articles. The other articles were generated from the Taylor and Francis, Online Wiley, and Emerald insight databases. Afterwards, only the first four pages of search results were selected. This criterion generated a total of 658 articles in all databases. As a result of the final screening, 73 articles were selected. Table 1 depicts the search process.

The researcher picked articles published in the English language, from journals, working papers and reports from reputable publishers such as the International Labour Organization (ILO), World Bank (WB) and Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Dissertations, theses, books and book chapters were excluded from the analysis. This strategy was also applied by Gupta and Sharma (2021). The literature survey was conducted from October 2022-January 2023. Since the manual content analysis can handle small datasets (Lewis et al., 2013); the study applied this technique to identify the occurrence of the variables in the articles and titles. Then, variables from the objectives were classified into themes and the analysis was executed. The themes were the variables of financial literacy and its components (financial knowledge, attitude and behaviors) in microfinance institutions. The study also identified data analysis techniques and occurrence of variables in the research titles.

Table 1: Article Search Process

Type of database	Initial search for articles	First four pages of articles	Final articles selected
Google scholar	17,700	478	52
Sage	1, 131	72	0
Emerald	1,000	46	8
Tylor and Francis	627	38	7
Online Wiley	96	24	6
Total	**20,554**	**658**	**73**

Source: Literature review

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
This section discusses the MFI specifications in research titles, data analysis methods, and variable coverage.

Research Title Analysis

According to the analysis, 32 studies (44%) used the term "financial literacy" in their titles. The findings further demonstrate that only 13 (18%) studies mentioned the terms financial literacy and MFIs in their titles. The analysis indicates that only 7 (10%) articles specified the type of MFIs in their titles while 9 studies (12%) did not specify the type of MFIs. Almost 5(7%) studies indicated components of financial behavior in their titles, but one article described a component of financial knowledge. Moreover, the analysis shows that none of the studies included a component of financial attitude in their titles. The analysis indicates that in most of the studies, the association between financial literacy and MFI is expressed within the documents, not in the titles. According to the analysis, only Moko et al. (2020) incorporated all three variables of financial attitude, knowledge, and behavior into their titles.

Therefore, the analysis indicates that studies that specify the type of MFIs in the study titles, those that combine three variables of financial literacy and those that specify one or two sub-variables of financial literacy in the research titles were missing. The findings confirm the argument of Refera et al. (2016) who reported that few studies have examined the role of financial literacy in policy reforms in developing countries. Additionally, Refera et al. (2016) claimed that the variation in financial literacy groups makes it impossible to generalize financial literacy findings. Table 2 presents the title analysis from the empirical literature.

Table 2: Research title analysis

S/N	Variable (s)	Authors	No of studies	%
1	Financial literacy in titles	Agarwalla et al., 2013; Ajibola et al., 2020; Andreou and Anyfantaki, 2021; Baidoo et al., 2020; Banciu et al., 2022; Barua and Sane, 2014; Bhandare et al., 2021; Bijli, 2012; Bongomin and Munene, 2019; Bongomin et al. 2020; Chiwaula et al., 2020; Das and Dutta, 2014;, Gaudence et al., 2018; Gebeyehu, 2022; Hasan and Hoque, 2021; Huston, 2010; Kaiser and Menkhoff, 2017; Khuc et al., 2022; Lee and Huruta, 2022; Malhotra and Baag, 2021; Mishra et al., 2021; Murendo, and Mutsonziwa, 2017; Nawaz, 2015; Premarathne, and	32	44

		Abeysekera, 2020; Razak et al., 2020; Redson and Magali, 2022; Refera et al., 2016; Robert et al. 2018; Sayankar and Mali, 2022; Shibia, 2012; Vijaykumar and Naidu, 2016; Widhiyanto et.al., 2018; Xu and Zia, 2012).		
2	Financial literacy and MFIs in the titles	Ajibola et al., 2020; Banciu et al., 2022; Barua and Sane, 2014; Bijli, 2012; Bongomin and Munene, 2019; Das and Dutta, 2014; Gaudence et al., 2018; Lee and Huruta, 2022; Malhotra and Baag, 2021; Premarathne, and Abeysekera, 2020; Robert et al. 2018; Sayankar and Mali, 2022; Vijaykumar and Naidu, 2016)	13	18
3	Studies that specify the type of MFIs in the title and their concentration	women empowerment in MFIs (Bijli, 2012), rural Assam MFI clients (Das and Dutta, 2014), MFIs in Srilanka (Premarathne and Abeysekera, 2020), MFIs in Uganda (Bongomin et al., 2020), MFIs in Cambodia (Banciu et al., 2022), MFI clients (Sayankar and Mali, 2022), MFIs (Barua and Sane, 2014), MFIs and financial literacy in Nigeria (Ajibola et al., 2020). Moreover, Karlan and Valdivia (2011) analyzed the training impact for MFI clients.	9	12
4	Studies that specify the type of MFIs in titles	Mishra et al, 2021), Green microfinance (Lee, and Huruta, 2022), VSLAs in Malawi (Chiwaula et al., 2020), VICOBA in Tanzania (Redson and Magali, 2022), SACCOS in Uganda (Gaudence et al., 2018), Indian SHGs (Vijaykumar and Naidu, 2016), Amanah Ikthiar Malaysia MFI (Razak et al., 2020).	7	10
5	Titles with a financial behavior variable	Chidambaranathan and Guha, 2020; Kumar and Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2018; Chiwaula et al., 2020; Bhandare et al., 2021; Andreou and Anyfantaki, 2021; Kaiser and Menkhoff, 2017)	7	10

6	Studies that contain financial behavior in titles	(Bhandare et al., 2021; Chidambaranathan and Guha, 2020; Chiwaula et al., 2020; Kaiser and Menkhoff, 2017; Kumar, and Mukhopadhyay, 2013)	5	7
7	Studies that contain all three variables of financial literacy in the titles	Moko et al., 2020)	1	1
8	Studies that contain financial knowledge in titles	(Fiebig et al., 1999)	1	1
9	Studies that contain financial attitude in titles	None	0	0

Source: Literature review

Data Analysis Methods

Regarding data analysis methods, 35 (48%) studies used regression or logistic regression analysis. In contrast, 16 (22%) studies were qualitative in nature and analyzed concepts, narratives, contents, and arguments. In 10 (14%) studies, factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) were employed. There were also 2 studies (3%) that employed descriptive and correlation methods. Moreover, 1(1%) of the studies employed t-tests and chi-square tests, meta-analyses and transcendental logarithmic functions. Table 3 presents a summary of data analysis methods in financial literacy MFI studies.

Table 3: Data analysis methods

S/N	Variable (s)	Authors	No of studies	%
1	Regression/Logistic regression	(Cole et al., 2014; Chiwaula et al., 2020; Gaudence et al., 2018; Shibia, 2012; Natamba et al., 2013; Wanjiku and Muturi, 2015; Banciu et al., 2022; Gebeyehu, 2022; Hamsa and Ramly, 2022; Baidoo et al., 2020; Robert et al., 2018; Barua and Sane, 2014; Ajibola et al., 2020; Andreou and Anyfantaki, 2021; Widhiyanto et al., 2018; Robert, et al., 2018; Karlan and Valdivia, 2011; Munyua, 2016; Amran and Mwasiaji, 2019; De Mel et al., 2008; Bayai and Ikhide, 2018; Hasan and Hoque, 2021; Ghosh and Guha, 2019; Malhotra and	35	48

		Baag, 2021; Illangakoon et al., 2022; Froelich et al., 2015; Ssekiziyivu et al., 2017; Al-Amin and Islam, 2019; Murendo, and Mutsonziwa, 2017; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2018; Bhandare et al., 2021; Janda and Turbat, 2013; Ndaki, et al., 2018; Golman and Bekerman, 2018; Smits and Günther, 2018)		
2	Qualitative analysis	(Bijli, 2012; Nawaz, 2015; Sayankar and Mali, 2022; Sangwan and Nayak, 2020; Rahman et al., 2015; Lamichhane, 2021; Hu et al., 2016; Hudon, 2008; Reeves and Sabharwal, 2013; Khursheed, 2022; Balkenhol et al., 2012; Malhotra and Baag, 2021; Mhando, 2018; Morawczynski and Pickens, 2009; Parvez and Chowdhury, 2016; Bellazzecca and Biosca, 2022)	16	22
3	Structural equation Modeling (SEM)	(Bongomin et al., 2020; Bongomin and Munene, 2019; Lee and Huruta, 2022; Kamdjoug et al., 2020; Xiong and You, 2019; Moko et al., 2022; Khuc et al., 2022; Lučić et al., 2021).	8	11
4	Correlation analysis	(Das and Dutta, 2014; Fiebig et al., 2009)	2	3
5	Factor analysis	(Mishra et al., 2021; Razak et al., 2020)	2	3
6	Descriptive analysis	(Patel and Jha, 2020; Kumar and Mukhopadhyay, 2013).	2	3
7	T- test and chi square.	(Vijaykumar and Naidu, 2016)		
8	Meta-analysis	(Menkhoff, 2017)	1	1
9	Transcendental logarithmic function.	(Servin et al., 2012)	1	1
10	*Multivariate* Canonical analysis and discriminant function	(Redson and Magali, 2022)	1	1

Source: Literature review

The review indicates that most MFI scholars prefer to use regression analysis in their financial literacy studies as compared to other methods. Regression analysis is a simple and straightforward method of identifying the relationship between variables explicitly and does not require any calibration of data (Vis, 2012). Many authors have also devoted their attention to qualitative analysis. A review of the variables indicates that

there are few studies that apply factor analysis, structural equation modeling (SEM), correlation analysis, t- test, chi square, meta-analysis, transcendental logarithmic function and descriptive analysis.

Variable coverage

The analysis reveals two studies that are related to the title of the current study. These are Sayankar and Mali (2022) and Malhotra and Baag (2021). Sayankar and Mali (2022) analyzed the role of financial literacy on financial inclusion for Indian MFI clients. However, their study had limited coverage since it did not evaluate the role of financial literacy in MFIs, but rather for all individuals living in India. This study was limited by the use of only 18 articles, of which only three were eminent (2 journal articles and 1 World Bank report). In this regard, the study was not comprehensive. Moreover, Malhotra and Baag (2021) through a systematic review of the literature analyzed how finance literacy is regarded as a tool for microfinancing. However, the study was primarily concerned with the definition, dimensions, and interpretation of financial literacy concepts. Furthermore, despite claiming to target microfinance institutions, no studies from MFIs were presented but most studies focused on university students and other sectors.

The analysis indicates that the majority (26%) of studies focused on savings. According to Magali (2022), savings enhance a microfinance institution's ability to acquire capital; therefore, scholars are interested in assessing how financial literacy has improved the availability of capital. Moreover, loan default is a significant problem in MFIs (Pamuk et al., 2021; Magali, 2022) and has attracted 10 (14%) studies. In a similar manner, 10 authors (14%) expressed an interest in the use of mobile money while 9 (12%) studies examined the impact of financial literacy on investments. Moreover, 15 (21%) studies analyzed financial behavior while financial attitude variable was examined in 8 (11%) studies. The role of training and financial knowledge in financial literacy each accounted for 5 (7%) of studies.

Furthermore, a total of 4 (6%) studies in each case examined the influence of financial literacy on women's empowerment, budgeting, and interest rates. Financial literacy's role in mediating other variables, in determining financial access and purchasing, each registered 3(4%) studies. The influence of financial transaction costs and outreach each involved 2(3%) studies. Furthermore, financial literacy influence on declarative and

procedural cognitions and on number of transactions each accounted for 1(1%) study. Table 4 presents the frequencies of the variables. The review indicates that studies that influence of financial literacy on performance (profitability), efficiency, risk and credit risk management, livelihood and corporate governance improvement in MFIs are missing.

The findings further reveal that most scholars are interested in saving and deposit, financial behavior and money and mobile money financial literacy variables. Moreover, loan repayment, investment and financial attitude variables also fascinate financial literacy scholars. However, the role of training in financial literacy and the variable of financial knowledge has received scant attention. Low preference also exists for variables of women empowerment, budgeting, interest rates, and mediation between financial literacy and other variables. Financial accessibility, purchasing, transaction costs, declarative and procedural cognitions and number of transactions variables have received low attention from financial literacy scholars. The findings generally show that the coverage of variables in financial literacy studies is inadequate. Thus, financial literacy scholars need to fill in the identified gaps.

Table 4: Occurrence of variables in MFI financial literacy studies

S/N	Variable (s)	Authors	No of studies	%
1	Savings and deposits	(Fiebig et al., 2009; Morawczynski and Pickens, 2009; Bijli, 2012; Janda and Turbat, 2013; Froelich et al., 2015; Parvez and Chowdhury, 2016; Murendo, and Mutsonziwa, 2017; Günther ,2018; Mhando, 2018; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2018; Chiwaula et al., 2020; Ajibola et al., 2020; Kamdjoug et al., 2020; Kamdjoug et al.,2020; Razak et al., 2020; Redson and Magali, 2022; Lee and Huruta, 2022; Gebeyehu, 2022; Khuc et al., 2022)	19	26
2	Financial behavior	(Morawczynski and Pickens, 2009; Fiebig et al. 2009; Kumar and Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Janda and Turbat, 2013; Parvez and Chowdhury, 2016; Ndaki, et al., 2018; Smits and Günther, 2018; Golman and Bekerman, 2018; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2018; Ajibola et al., 2020; Bhandare et al.,	15	21

		2021; Lučić et al., 2021; Banciu et al., 2022; Bellazzecca and Biosca, 2022: Khuc et al., 2022).		
3	Money and mobile money transactions	Morawczynski and Pickens, 2009; Reeves and Sabharwal, 2013; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2018; Chiwaula et al., 2020; Kamdjoug et al., 2020; Chidambaranathan and Guha, 2020; Hasan and Hoque, 2021; Banciu et al., 2022; Illangakoon et al., 2022)	10	14
4	Loan repayment	(De Mel et al., 2008; Barua and Sane, 2014; Wanjiku and Muturi, 2015; Munyua, 2016; Gaudence et al., 2018; Smits and Günther, 2018; Ghosh and Guha, 2019; Baidoo et al., 2020; Redson and Magali, 2022; Sayankar and Mali, 2022).	10	14
5	Investment	(Morawczynski and Pickens, 2009; Das and Dutta, 2014; Rahman et al., 2015; Robert et al., 2018; Ajibola et al., 2020; Khuc et al., 2022; Banciu et al., 2022; Khursheed, 2022; Bellazzecca and Biosca, 2022).	9	12
6	Financial attitude	(Das and Dutta, 2014; Froelich et al. 2015; Razak et al., 2020; Chidambaranathan and Guha, 2020; Malhotra and Baag, 2021; Moko et al., 2022; Khursheed, 2022; Illangakoon et al., 2022).	8	11
7	Training	(Froelich et al., 2015; Vijaykumar and Naidu, 2016; Patel and Jha, 2020). Bhandare et al., 2021; Banciu et al., 2022).	5	7
8	Financial knowledge	(Hudon, 2008; Reeves and Sabharwal, 2013; Ghosh and Guha, 2019; Xiong and You, 2019; Hasan and Hoque, 2021).	5	7
9	Women empowerment	(Bijli, 2012; Sangwan and Nayak, 2020; Lee and Huruta, 2022; Khursheed, 2022)	4	6
10	Budgeting	(Cole et al., 2014; Wanjiku and Muturi, 2015; Gaudence et al., 2018; Banciu et al., 2022).	4	6
11	Interest rate	(Cole et al., 2014; Razak et al., 2020; Lamichhane, 2021; Hasan and Hoque, 2021)	4	6
12	Mediation role between financial literacy and other	(Bongomin et al. 2020; Moko et al., 2022; Lee and Huruta, 2022)	3	4

	variables			
13	Financial accessibility	(Shibia, 2012; Widhiyanto et al., 2018; Hasan and Hoque, 2021)	3	4
14	Purchasing	Morawczynski and Pickens, 2009; Kumar and Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Cole et al., 2014)	3	4
15	Transaction costs	Natamba et al., 2013; Das and Dutta, 2014).	2	3
16	Outreach	(Natamba et al., 2013, Sangwan and Nayak, 2020 and Robert et al., 2018)	2	3
17	Declarative and procedural cognitions	(Bongomin and Munene, 2019).	1	1
18	Number of transactions	(Cole et al., 2014).	1	1

Source: Literature review

CONCLUSION

The findings indicate that most studies do not specify the type of MFIs in the research titles. The majority of studies revealed that financial literacy promotes clients' savings, followed by money and mobile money usage, loan repayment and investment. Nevertheless, few studies have demonstrated that financial literacy influences women's empowerment, transaction costs, outreach, and declarative and procedural cognitions. Further, the findings indicated that most studies employed regression data analysis, while others applied qualitative, factor analysis, structural equation modeling, descriptive, correlation, t-tests and chi-square tests, meta-analyses and transcendental logarithmic functions.

The review shows that few studies have examined the role of financial knowledge and attitude, as well as the role of moderation and mediation variables. Moreover, a limited number of studies have examined the impact of financial literacy on MFI performance variables such as sustainability, profitability, efficiency, credit risk management and corporate governance. There is also a lack of studies that link the role of financial literacy to performance, credit risk management, livelihood, and sustainability theories. The findings generally show that the coverage of variables in MFI financial literacy studies is insufficient. In this study, the literature has been reviewed in a systematic manner and gaps have been identified for future research. The study's novel findings suggest management and policy implications for enforcing financial literacy training within MFIs. In the author's opinion, this is the first

comprehensive systematic review to study financial literacy variables in MFI studies.

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An Assessment of Mentoring Programmes for Novice Secondary School Teachers' Competencies in Mbeya Region, Tanzania

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring programmes are cost- effective and interesting in helping one to grow in different teaching methodologies for practicing secondary school teachers and learning processes for novice teachers. When mentoring is carried out in one's early career development, novice teachers become competent and execute their work with confidence. Yet, there are a few studies which have so far been conducted concerning the assessment of mentoring programmes for novice secondary school teachers' competencies. Specifically, the study examined the forms of mentoring offered to novice teachers in secondary schools in Mbeya region; and established stakeholders' perceptions on mentoring programmes in developing novice teachers' teaching competencies in secondary schools in Mbeya region. A descriptive survey research design utilizing quantitative and qualitative approaches was used to a sample size of 110 respondents. Quantitative data were analysed descriptively while qualitative data being analysed through content analysis. The findings revealed that different forms of mentoring were practiced in Mbeya region. These included formal and informal mentoring, instance and group mentoring, situational and supervisory mentoring where each form of mentoring benefited novice teachers towards teaching and learning. Also, the study revealed positive perception of mentoring programs towards developing novice teachers' competence in secondary schools from stakeholders. Further, novice teachers viewed their mentors as models to help understanding of their own strengths and weakness, as well as acquiring problem solving skills, thereby filling the gap created by limited practices and experiences not covered during teacher training. It was recommended that there is a need to strengthen programmes in secondary schools in order to support novice teachers' progress in the beginning of their teaching career.

Keywords: *Mentoring programmes, novice teachers, secondary school, teaching competencies*

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring programmes are cost effective and interesting in facilitating teaching and learning process for both novices and practicing secondary school teachers because when mentoring is carried out earlier, novice teachers become competent and can execute their work with confidence (Mena et al., 2016). According to Gong et al. (2014), mentoring is the process or an opportunity to develop an individual's mental and professional capabilities. The most widely accepted definition is that of Geeraets et al. (2010) who defined mentoring as a developmental interactive relationship established between mentors and mentees in which mentors transmit knowledge, skills, and experience and provide support, guidance and friendship to mentees. The developmental interactive relationship that transmits knowledge, skills and experience provides mentees with challenging work, social support and safe relationship through a process of knowledge and skill sharing, which positively affects employee performance and behavior (Callahan, 2016). On the part of mentors, mentoring relationships provide an opportunity to give back to the community, can build leadership and management capacities and expand professional network (Desimore et al., 2014).

Research on mentoring programmes in different parts of the world indicates that the teaching reform processes need to occur in two areas; novice teachers who enter the teaching profession for the first time and practitioners who are experienced teachers. For novice teachers, their professional knowledge and skills in teaching are better capacitated with mentoring programmes. A survey by Fortune 500 companies in the USA showed that 96% of the companies reported that mentoring programmes were important employee development tools while about 75% of the Fortune companies informed that mentoring was a key factor in their employees' success (Gong et al., 2014). Again, 71% of the 500 companies and private companies indicated that using mentoring programmes enhanced effectiveness among workers. Another survey of 77% of the companies that have mentoring programmes indicated improvement in both employee retention and job performance (Scandura, 2008).

Mentoring programmes are teaching and learning processes that have

helped in-service teachers in different parts of Tanzania (Eby et al., 2008). Primary school teachers in Shinyanga Region, for example, underwent mentoring programme under Education Quality Improvement Project-EQUIP (Soko, 2012). Other programmes include Licensed Secondary School Teachers Tanzania (MoEC, 2004) and Two-tier Diploma Student-Teachers (MoEC, 2007). Moreover, there have been several attempts to start mentoring programmes in Tanzania but most of them were not sustainable. Some were limited in scope (not scaled up country-wide); others were not supported by the existing government policies. Some mentoring programmes existed in documents, but no studies have been conducted in areas related to mentoring to enhance teaching to novice teachers (MoEC, 1998).

Forms of Mentoring Programmes
Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) provided two types of mentoring programmes, namely formal and informal mentoring that are accompanied with phases or stages. According to Geeraets et al. (2018) formal mentoring entails as structure where both mentor and mentee have specific goals and targets to match the organization's goals and culture. This involves the commitment of time and energy to guide and share opinions between the players. More so, Kelly et al. (2018) asserted that informal mentoring unlike formal mentoring, has minimal or no structure and may or may not have a clear and specific goal. In many cases, it is normally for interpersonal enhancement and can promote career development of the mentee. They further stated that a poorly planned and unstructured mentoring programme could be a waste of time.

Wandela (2014) assert that mentoring programs are vital to both novices and practicing secondary school teachers in Tanzania because when mentoring is carried out earlier, novice teachers become competent and execute their work with confidence. Geeraets et al. (2018) assert that formal mentoring demands as structure where both mentor and mentee possess specific goals and targets toward attaining the organization's goals and culture. It portrays commitment of time and energy where the mentor guides and shares opinions with mentees (Aderibigbe, 2013). Informal mentoring on the other hand requires minimal or no structure and may or may not have clear and specific goals as in many cases, it is normally for interpersonal enhancement that promotes the career development of the mentee (Kelly et al., 2018). Instance mentoring focuses on a short time

mentorship for it is less expensive and has a simple option to employ where senior staff becomes mentors without investing a lot of time (Ingersoll & Strong, 2012). The only requirement is one hour or less of the mentor's time to meet with a mentee (Callahan, 2016). Meena et al. (2016) asserted that group mentoring entails mentoring in which one mentor works with several mentees at once in a group. It is stated that the mentor in this stance will have an area of expertise to share and the mentees will have similar personal development goals or wish to learn specific new skills or knowledge (Benson-Jaja, 2010). Whereas peer mentoring takes place between a person who has lived through a specific experience and a person who is new to that experience, situational mentoring as per Callahan (2016) entails a short-term discussion between executives, on a high impact issue, problem, and challenge or opportunity where the purpose of mentoring is to enhance individual and organizational performance, as well as increase proficiency in leadership competencies. Besides, supervisory mentoring according to Geeraets et al. (2018) engages time to explore techniques and help solve problems with opportunities to reflect day to day practices of an organization where one oversees a person or group of people engaging in an activity or task and keeps order or ensure that s/he/they perform it.

Desimone et al. (2014) in their study examined the variances for informal and formal mentoring and the way to improve the mentoring policy in Philadelphia, USA. The results showed that informal mentoring is likely to play a significant role for mentee's learning while having little knowledge on their performance as the most induction programme. The findings further showed that informal and formal mentors aided similar purposes but delivered compensatory and harmonizing upkeep. The findings celebrated a set of policy endorsements to improve novice teacher support among which in order to increase formal mentor training.

Despite its usefulness in promoting teacher career development, there are a few studies which have so far been conducted concerning the assessment of mentoring programmes for novice secondary school teachers' competencies in Mbeya region in Tanzania. This study assessed the mentoring programmes for novice secondary school teachers' competencies in Mbeya region. Specifically, the article;
   i)   Examined current forms of mentoring offered to novice teachers in secondary schools in Mbeya region.
   ii)   Established stakeholders' perceptions on mentoring programmes in

developing novice teachers' teaching competencies in secondary schools in Mbeya region.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
The study was underpinned by Padua's model of mentoring teachers. Padua's model (2003) or theory was adapted from Routman's Model that focused on effective teaching and learning in mentoring novice teachers. As per Padua (2003) the founder, mentor teachers possess a deep understanding and experience on specific content areas that they share with mentees. The theory assumes that a mentor teacher has the task of assisting teachers in refining instructional strategies and engaging novice teachers in conversations while providing overall support. Padua (2003) recommends that on using any of the techniques, the novice teacher and mentor should discuss the lesson's objectives and the instructional strategies, and focus on why objectives are selected. Afterwards, teachers should discuss the lesson and plan for the next steps to follow.

METHODOLOGY
The study was conducted in Mbeya Region in Tanzania utilizing a descriptive survey research design with both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The target population for this study included government secondary school teachers in Rungwe, Busokelo and Kyela Districts. Statistics show that these districts have a total of 1,936 Government Secondary School Teachers, out of which 138 were novice (new) teachers and 1,841 were experienced teachers. Yet, the statistics from Districts Education Offices indicate that there are 85 Secondary Schools: 68 are Public and 17 are privately owned schools. For this study, the target population included a total of 138 novices (new) teachers who were recently posted to work in those three district councils; whereby 50, 45 and 43 new teachers were from Rungwe, Busokelo and Kyela districts respectively.

The sample for this study was generated from the sampling formula developed by Kothari (2009). Kothari's formula helped the researcher to arrive at a target sample.
n = 138/1+138 x (0.5 x 0.5)
n = 110   approximately 110

Therefore, the sample size for the study comprised of 40, 36 and 32 respondents from Rungwe, Busokelo and Kyela District Councils respectively.

The study used simple random sampling technique in drawing novice teachers. In this technique, each member of the population had the same probability of being chosen (Kothari, 2004). Purposive sampling was used among experienced teachers to obtain and utilize the personal experience of each respondent regarding the examination of the effects of mentoring on secondary school teachers' competencies; a case of Mbeya region in Tanzania. Quantitative data were analysed descriptively using frequencies and percentage with the help of SPSS software while qualitative data was analysed through content analysis.

To ensure validity, the study used triangulation method to collect data. Questionnaires and interview guide were pre-tested before being used. The aim was to test whether the instrument would elicit responses required to achieve the research objectives, to test whether the content of the instrument is relevant and adequate, to test whether the wording of questions is clear and suited to the understanding of the novice teachers and to develop appropriate procedure for administering the instrument with reference to field conditions (Krishna & Swami, 2006).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
Forms of Mentoring offered to Novice Teachers
This objective examined current forms of mentoring programmes offered to novice teachers in secondary schools in Mbeya region. To obtain data on this aspect, the respondents were asked to express their views on the matter by indicating the choices in Likert type scale statements while providing additional views through interview on the question. The results are summarized in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Forms of Mentoring

Statements	% strongly agree	% agree	% uncertain	% disagree	% strongly disagree
Formal mentoring	90	10	0	0	0
Informal mentoring	85	15	0	0	0
Instance mentoring	80	20	0	0	0
Group mentoring	70	20	10	0	0
Peer mentoring	60	0	40	0	0
Situational mentoring	60	30	10	0	0
Supervisory mentoring	70	0	30	0	0

The results in Table 1.1 show that almost all respondents strongly agreed that one of the forms of mentoring is formal mentoring. It was found that in

this formal mentoring a mentor was assigned with one or two novice teachers whereby assistance was given to them for enabling teaching and learning. The outcome from this mentoring is that mentors were able to provide classroom management guidelines, encourage and assist novice teachers; and enabling strategies and resources available towards enriching the school culture and environment for the novice teachers. This agrees with Callahan (2016) who reported that mentoring as a personal guidance is provided to beginning teachers in schools by experienced teachers resulting into novice teachers gaining job satisfaction, improving the ability to develop lesson plans accompanied with effective classroom management strategies thereby acquiring better questioning techniques and enhanced student achievement. This has been obvious in the studied area where, novice teachers affirmed to have acquired adequate skills through formal mentoring.

One of the key informants had the following view;

> Through formal mentoring novice teachers have been assisted in managing teaching and enriching their competencies and careers development something that increased effectiveness in their classrooms. With the provided formal mentoring, novice teachers were found to have higher satisfaction and greater commitment at work (Mentor, M, 2).

Furthermore, the results in Table 1.1 show that majority (85%) of respondents strongly agreed on the presence of informal mentoring. It was noted that informal mentoring provided to novice teachers provided a complementary support to them than it was in-school mentorship where interactions was enhanced. It was further contended that when a novice teacher has no formal mentor but receives support through informal means such as veteran teachers, principals, official conference, retired teachers and many others aided well their coaching for guidance provision. The statement above concurs with Desimone, et al. (2014) who contended that with informal mentoring, novice teachers appreciate the support provided by mentors where less-experienced colleagues achieve more skills in the absence of a formal program. One of key informants opined;

> With informal mentoring that complements formal mentoring, novice teachers attain the growth mindset or the desire to learn and grow in their profession while improving their skills in teaching and learning. Further, a culture of learning at the school contributes to individual growth mindset resulting into teachers feeling confident while enhancing the ability to ask when needed and growing their abilities (Mentor, M, 7).

On the other hand, the results in Table 1.1 show that 80% of respondents strongly agreed that the other form of mentoring is instance mentoring. Whereby senior staff in various institutions become mentors without investing a lot of time to enable their mentees to acquire skills. In the study area, experienced teachers were able to dedicate their time to help novice teachers improve their working capabilities. The mentors' experience enables mentees to have time to share what they have for a given time thereby improving the novice teachers' skills. The statement above concurs with Aderibigbe (2013) who reported that mentoring new teachers can improve skills and help them through their transition to job satisfaction. A growing body of research suggests that novices who receive mentoring have higher job satisfaction and are more committed to their jobs. According to Ingersoll and Strong (2012), all mentoring should include three aspects including emotional support, teacher qualifications and coaching skills.

Additionally, the results in Table 1.1 show that 70% of respondents strongly agreed that group mentoring was among the mentoring forms. It was found that novice teachers when mentored in groups, kept students on task better, used effective discussion techniques, developed good lesson plans, had positive classroom environment where they could adjust instructions appropriately and manage classrooms effectively. Here a mentor would be in position to meet with mentees, posing questions, listening what mentees discuss and allow conversations to align with the skills provided. This agrees with Mena et al. (2016) who reported that group mentoring necessitate mentees to have freedom to discuss issues that may be guided by the mentor for successful implementation of teaching and learning.

One of the key informants had this to comment:

> Group mentoring was carried out in most cases during weekdays where mentees had time to reflect on what pertains their coaching whereby challenges encountered would be discussed and solved. This helped in most cases those novice teachers who in one way or the other got stack on the way during teaching and learning (Mentor, M, 9).

Similarly, the results in Table 1.1 show that 60% of respondents strongly agreed that peer mentoring was among the forms of mentoring that involved two individuals that include a mentor and mentee could come together and solve challenges that come by towards professional development and growth while facilitating mutual learning and building a sense of community engagement. It was found that with peer monitoring, novice

teachers could be more open to each other while sharing the skills that could enable the facilitation of teaching and learning. The results concur with Callahan (2016) who reported that peer mentoring has been helpful among novice teachers who in many times have possibilities of interacting with each other in a manner to help when need arise. Moreover, 40% of respondents were undecided on the matter from the fact that in most cases, such form was not employed in the study area.

Nonetheless, the results in Table 1.1 show that 60% of respondents strongly agreed that situational mentoring was among the forms of mentoring. It was found that situational mentoring aided novice teachers to solve immediate challenges. Although, immediate challenges were solved through this form, in some instances, such forms could be transformed to a more long-term situation. The results are in concurrence with Faucette and Nugent (2017) who insisted that situational mentoring is useful when immediate solutions are required to enable a mentee solve the challenges that come by.

One key informant narrated that:

> In some instances, our mentors used situational mentoring to fix some issues that could not have been understood by novice teachers. The use of such form complemented issues that could not be accommodated in a formal mentoring (Mentor, M, 4)

Finally, the results in Table 1.1 show that 70% of respondents strongly agreed that supervisory mentoring is among the forms of mentoring used to nurture novice teachers in the study area. It was found that supervisory mentorship focuses on inherent responsibility of relationship where a novice teacher's development plan outlines expectations for coaching and feedback provision. This form of mentoring was found to be used in day to day uses where guidance was provided to aid mentees acquire skills relevant for the job's performance. The statement above concurs with Kelly et al. (2018) who reported that when new teachers participate in mentoring programs their students show greater academic gains. Moreover, formal and informal mentoring were found to be used frequently in the study area compared with the other forms of mentoring.

This was attested by one of the key informants as follows:

> In our schools, formal and informal mentoring have been occasionally used. Other forms such as peer, situational, group etc have been used in a minimal way. The

reason has been due to efficiency in obtaining good results when used and being evaluated in a better manner (Mentor, M, 10).

Generally, the results show that different forms of mentoring were practiced in secondary schools in Mbeya region. These included formal and informal mentoring, instance and group mentoring, situational and supervisory mentoring. Moreover, each mentoring had its benefits towards novice teachers' enrichment in teaching and learning.

Stakeholders' Perceptions on Mentoring Programmes for Novice Teacher Competencies

This objective established the stakeholders' perceptions on mentoring programmes in developing novice teachers' teaching competencies in secondary schools. Respondents' views were sought by administering the questionnaires and interviews. To obtain data on this aspect, the researcher asked respondents to express their views on the matter by indicating the choices (Likert type scale) provided on statements while providing additional views through interview. The results are presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Stakeholders' perceptions on mentoring programmes

Statements	% strongly agree	% agree	% uncertain	%disagree	% strongly disagree
Novice teachers view the mentor as a model to develop a greater understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses	70	30	0	0	0
Mentoring is perceived as an important employee development tool	80	0	20	0	0
Mentoring is perceived as a key factor for employees' personal success as mentoring enhances effectiveness among employees	80	20	0	0	0
Mentoring programs improve both employee retention and job performance	75	10	0	15	0
Mentoring helps Novice teachers to acquire problem solving skills and empowerment	80	0	20	0	0
Effective mentoring programs help novice teachers to fill the gap created by limited practices and experiences that could have been covered during trainers' education and training in colleges	90	10	0	0	0

The results in Table 1.2 show that 70% of respondents strongly agreed that

novice teachers view the mentor as a model to develop a greater understanding of their own strengths and weakness. This implies that the role of mentoring has been of expanding knowledge among novice teachers while enabling them to acquire necessary skills to eliminate their small weaknesses. This assertion is in line with Geeraets et al. (2018) who reported that mentors' roles include strengthening mentees and aiding them towards the understanding of the environment they are found while making sure that the weaknesses they possess are eliminated. This was obvious in the study area from the fact that mentees found to have weaknesses could be assisted something that resulted into competence acquisition.

On this one respondent narrated that;

> It was our tasks to enable novice teachers strengthen their competencies in their subject matters in order to have skills relevant for facilitating teaching and learning. By so doing, the majority of novice teachers were able to come out with good knowledge that can enable them stand by their own (Mentor, M, 6).

Additionally, the results in Table 1.2 show that 80% of respondents strongly agreed that mentoring is perceived as an important employee development tool. This implies that with novice teachers as flesh employees who are capacitated with skills from their experienced mentors; mentoring becomes a tool towards their career development. It was found that novice teachers who were mentored were able to do their jobs with confidence. The statements above agree with Gong et al. (2014) who asserted that mentoring mediates between personal learning skills and career outcomes, such as job promotion and job satisfaction as mentees become skilled. Also, the statements above concur with Benson-Jaja (2010) who observed that good mentoring programs increased teacher retention, when certain other factors were in place.

Similarly, the results in Table 1.2 show that 80% of respondents strongly agreed that mentoring is perceived as a key factor for employees' personal success as mentoring enhances effectiveness among employees. This implies that novice teachers were able to enhance their performance through mentorship, as they were able to utilize their acquired skills to improve job skills, performance and hence job satisfaction. The statement above is in line with Eby et al. (2008) who reported that effective mentoring is associated with positive career development, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes that enable a mentee to enhance his/her capabilities.

On the other hand, the results in Table 1.2 show that 75% of respondents strongly agreed that mentoring programs improve both employee retention and job performance. This implies that when novice teachers acquire additional skills from their mentors, retention and job performance are enhanced. It was found that with mentoring, novice teachers could perform their jobs with confidence. Moreover, 15% of respondents disagreed on the matter as some novice teachers could not reflect what was expected. This is in line with Faucette and Nugent (2017) who reported that mentors can help novice teachers develop essential skills and confidence in their abilities. Also, mentors shield the new teachers from making mistakes by limiting exposure to responsibility and becoming more politically aware within the school climate.

On this one of key informant had this to say:

> It has been found that novice teachers have been able to acquire skills that help them become confidence and perform their works with guided techniques (Mentor, M, 9)

Furthermore, the results in Table 1.2 show that 80% of respondents strongly agreed that mentoring helps novice teachers to acquire problem solving skills and empowerment. This implies that with the interaction, mentees were able to solve problems they encounter and get empowered on the ways to tackle issues in their day-to-day teaching and learning life. Moreover, 20% of respondents were undecided on the matter for the fact that not all novice teachers were able to utilize their acquired knowledge in solving teaching and learning challenges. The fact that novice teachers got empowered, empowerment went in line with enabling novice teachers perform their jobs well and assisted students in the manner needed for their day-to-day schooling. The statements on problem solving and empowerment concur with Mena et al. (2016) who reported that mentors use different approaches to enrich mentees where mentees' willingness to take responsibility, listening to suggestions given, hard-working, flexibility and organization towards success lead to good performance.

Finally, the results in Table 1.2 show that almost all respondents strongly agreed that effective mentoring programs help novice teachers to fill the gap created by limited practices and experiences that could have been covered during trainers' education and training in colleges. This implies that mentors aided mentees in filling the gap thereby enabling the mentees acquire necessary skills towards better teaching and learning. The statements above

are in line with Desimone et al. (2014) who contended that successful mentoring results into building relationship that is based on mutual respect, reciprocity, shared values and clear expectations to enable mentees acquire skills relevant for their jobs they are assigned to.

One of the key informants said:

> In carrying out mentorship, mentors have been able to observe novice teachers when teaching, allowing them to solve the challenges they meet thereby benefiting from being coached with extensive and comprehensive induction programs (Mentor, M, 11).

Generally, the results show that stakeholders have perceived mentoring programs as positive towards developing novice teachers' competence in secondary schools. It was found that through the use of multiple mentoring approaches mentors were able to support their mentees. Moreover, novice teachers view the mentors as models to develop a greater understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, as mentoring was perceived as an important employee development tool that enhanced their effectiveness and improved both employee retention and job performance. Likewise, mentoring helps novice teachers to acquire problem solving skills and empowerment, thereby filling the gap created by limited practices and experiences not covered during trainers' education and training in colleges.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Considering the findings of this study, it is concluded that different forms of mentoring programs were practiced in Mbeya region, Tanzania. These include formal and informal mentoring, instance and group mentoring, situational, and supervisory mentoring from which each form of mentoring benefited novice teachers towards the facilitation of teaching and learning. Consequently, the forms of mentoring programs helped novice teachers acquire problem solving skills and empowerment that filled the gap created by limited practices and experiences not covered during college training. Secondly, it can be concluded that stakeholders perceive mentoring programs as positive towards developing novice teachers' competence through the usage of multiple mentoring approaches. Stakeholders also perceive mentoring programs as models to develop novice teachers' understanding and enhanced their effectiveness and improved both employee retention and job performance. Finally, it is concluded that, while

novice teachers viewed mentors as models to develop a greater understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, mentoring covered the gap created by limited practices and experiences not covered during trainers' education and training in colleges. Therefore, it is recommended that mentors need to cultivate a culture of helping mentees and create mentoring goals to support mentees' progress from the beginning of their teaching career.

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COVID-19 Pandemic in Pre-Primary Children in Tanzania: Strategies and Challenges

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at exploring challenges faced by pre-primary children during COVID-19 pandemic and the strategies adapted to help them to cope with the pandemic in a Tanzanian context. Fifteen parents whose children were in pre-primary schools were interviewed through mobile phones on the challenges faced children and the strategies used to help their children cope with COVID 19 pandemic. The main challenges reported were loneliness and inactiveness. Majority of the parents could not device strategies that would help their children cope with the pandemic but reported to connect their children with the media such as educative cartoons. Based on the findings, it is recommended that necessary measures should be taken to empower parents to stimulate, play, communicate, and support their children's learning at home. Guidance should be provided to parents on how to engage their children in age-appropriate ways in order to develop literacy and numeracy skills at home.

Keywords: *Covid 19, Pre-primary school children, strategies, challenges*

INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a pandemic characterized by severe respiratory syndrome. The pandemic was firstly discovered in the year 2019 as an airborne disease which spread from one person to another through social contact as well as touching materials or surfaces infected by the virus. The COVID-19 pandemic has been defined as a global health crisis and the greatest challenge the world has faced since World War Two. Being reported as a dangerous disease, many nations adapted social distancing strategies such as lock down, avoiding social

contact, cleaning hands with running water, applying sanitizers and wearing masks. It also involved creation of quarantine centres for those who were crossing their borders. Furthermore, air flights were shut down hence causing the absence of inter-country travels. Tanzania adopted almost all coping strategies including closing schools to rescue children from the pandemic.

COVID-19 has brought about a number of challenges to the majority, but more specifically to the young children in many aspects. Literature highlights three factors that directly changed school children's lives on a massive scale: (a) school disruption, (b) emotional distress, and (c) increasing poverty.

A study conducted by Cuevas-Parra and Stephano (2020) to explore children and young people's reflections and perceptions towards the COVID-19 outbreak in 13 countries reports that school closure, which was affected in almost all countries in the world, greatly affected the education of young people and emotional aspects, which are foundational of child growth and development (see also Devercelli, 2020; UNICEF, 2020). A report by UNICEF for example points that the pandemic has deprived children from the culture of playing together which is a crucial part of their moral and emotional development. In peer groups for example, children learn positive behaviour such as sharing, patience, cooperation and empathy. Saavedra (2020) observed that remote learning was more challenging for poor families that could not afford social media gadgets such as smartphones and laptops. In some report areas, lack of internet connectivity and electricity were the major challenges that affected both the parents and young children as well. As Devercelli (2020) has argued, young children aging 0 to 5 years are more vulnerable since this is the period that their brain develop very fast, and social interaction facilitates this process. This critical period needs children's stimulation by learning from various groups, something which might not be possible due to the outbreak of the pandemic.

Since pre-primary children's stimulations are done   through social interactions with teachers and peers largely, confining them at home might have affected their growth, both emotionally and morally. Furthermore, research points that the change in children's lifestyle due to school closure and the perceived negative impacts may extend to adulthood (Xiang, Zhang & Kuwanara, 2020).

Kim and Rose (2020) in Ethiopia reported that although radios and televisions can reach young children, they are unable to achieve developmental gain without support from their parents especially if the latter are illiterate. This observation supports a view of Drajea (2015) and Ghanney (2018) that supporting children to learn at home is dependent on the literacy level of parents. According to these scholars, parental education and literacy skill levels to a large extent affect children's acquisition of literacy and numeracy skills.

During the COVID-19 crisis, which resulted to school closure, parents were presumed to be involved in the child's learning per se by facilitating literacy and numeracy skills at home. However, few researches have been done to investigate the challenges facing parents in supporting their pre-primary children in Tanzania. This is a significant gap in knowledge, which this study sought to address.

Several studies report that online and offline learning as the best opportunities to cope with COVID -19. For example, Aga Khan Foundation (2020) suggests that COVID-19 provides an avenue for young children to be connected to their teachers using offline teaching activities through pre-recorded videos. In both developed and developing countries for example, the Ministry of Education encouraged school children to continue with education from home. A study by Kim and Rose, (2020) in Ethiopia, for example reports that children in primary schools had opportunities to follow radio lessons and television at home. However, there was no strategy for pre-primary children.

UNICEF (2020) discusses ways of coping with COVID-19 for young children such as planning route together, open conversations and provide children online and stay in touch with their teachers. On the other hand, Saavedra (2020) advocates for social networking through WhatsApp, messages, remote and online learning as a major opportunity to cope with COVID-19. Devercelli (2020) also suggested a support through distribution of books and learning materials at home. Devercelli further advocates for provision of entertainment for young children through radios, televisions, internet and social media. These strategies were supported by Gallagher (2020) who pointed to moving classroom lessons online and connecting children to media.

However, these scholars did not consider the challenges that parents be facing as they accessed the opportunities available for their children during the pandemic because not all parents have reached a level that they can help their children as teachers do. The argument is in line with that of Gashman and Bhattacharjea (2020) who observed that, while parents can help their children by reading them stories, this can be limited to affluent and literate parents.

Researches report that due to COVID 19, students at different levels have continued with education from home, however, there were no strategies put in place aiming at supporting pre-primary children (Kim & Rose, 2020). Devercelli (2020) argues that young children can be supported through books distribution or community education in a form of entertainment using games, which is not possible due to the pandemic. Furthermore, Gallagher (2020) advocates for connecting children to the media and playing games with them. Research further report that parents have a number of strategies aiming at supporting young children during the pandemic, however, only children with literate parents have access to a positive circle of learning while poor and illiterate parents lack knowledge on what children should learn and how to help them (Cashman Bhattachaejea, & Sabates, 2020).

In Tanzania, all education institutions were closed following the global COVID-19 pandemic. The aim of the closure was to protect children against coronavirus infections. This strategy was coupled with daily measures/strategies such as keeping distance by going into lockdown; whereby children were supposed to stay at home and were requested to observe all the strategies set to mediate against the spread of the coronavirus pandemic.

Some of the learning institutions and schools ensured that students continue with studies in the country. For example, The Open university of Tanzania which practices online learning platforms such as Moodle and Zoom, students were not affected by the COVID-19 pandemic compared to other higher learning institutions. For primary and secondary schools, the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) through the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) adapted online teaching and learning. The main delivery modes were through WhatsApp groups, radio and television broadcasting. Other schools especially those privately owned were also providing online lectures (recorded; using zoom), and

weekly assignments posted on school websites. However, this remained a challenge for those who were in remote locations and economically disadvantaged since the mode of delivery required an individual to possess digital infrastructures such as television, laptop, smartphone and bandwidth as well as availability of electricity and internet.

For young children, especially pre-primary children, COVID-19 has brought challenges to all development aspects of the child; socially, emotionally, morally, academically and psychologically. Social interaction being a source of learning which promotes child growth in many aspects has been highly affected. Children learn from multiple settings such as at home, in the community, and at school, which was no longer possible due to COVID-19 pandemic. In homes, parents were solely responsible for their children's social, psychological and physical development through physical teaching or exposing them to available programs prepared for young children in Tanzania such as Ubongo kids and Sesame cartoons.

However, there are few programs for young children in Tanzania such as cartoons of Ubongo kids and Sesame. Few children from affluent and literate parents could benefit from these programs (Saavedra, 2020); nevertheless, these methods are not sufficient for young children. For example, watching cartoons for many hours can pose challenge for young children as they cannot concentrate on one thing and it is difficult for them to stay in one place for a long time.

Thus, the outbreak of COVID 19 rendered young children, especially pre-primary children vulnerable due to limited movement and being forced to access education remotely. It is not clear how the children coped and strategies that the parents used to help them. There is no study that has been done to understand this situation and how it was managed and the challenges that the children faced and strategies used by parents used to supported their children during COVID-19 Pandemic in Tanzania. Considering that parents are key figures in the lives of young children, it is worth exploring their perceptions and experiences of educating their pre-primary children during the pandemic. Specifically, this study aimed at addressing the following objectives:
  i) To establish challenges faced by young children after the school closure due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

ii) To explore strategies used by parents to help young children cope with stay-home after school closure due to COVID-19 pandemic.

iii) To explore opportunities available for young children during the COVID-19 pandemic.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Bronfenbrenner ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998) posits that home environment has an influence on the child's development; parents play an important role in influencing the child's behaviour including coping with unfriendly situation. Parents have direct influence to the child's life, especially when the environment surrounding the child is not friendly, in this case, COVID-19 pandemic. According to ecological theory, parents lay foundation of children development including adapting coping strategies at home. The theory guides the understanding of the challenges, strategies adopted by pre-primary children and their parents; and opportunities available during stay home on the perspectives of the parents. In this theory, parents form the proximal in helping children cope with the pandemic outbreak. In this study we propose that for children to successfully cope with the COVID-19 pandemic, the same will depend on the strategies applied by the parents in the home context.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Fifteen (15) parents with pre-primary children were purposively selected to participate in this study. Since people were keeping social distancing, interviews were done through mobile phone. Two researchers were involved and each interviewed the same respondents at different time in an interval of five days. This approach helped to crosscheck consistency of the information reported. The interviews were done in Kiswahili; the common language used by the majority of people in Tanzania.

Data Management, Processing and Analysis

Collected information was noted in notebooks and saved in phone audio recorder. Recorded information allowed preservation of participants' words and retrieval of information at any time needed during data processing and report writing. The analysis of qualitative data combined both, deductive and inductive strategies. Researchers neither approached the data with rigid set of pre-conceptions nor fully inductively but rather abductively, a combination of the two. This assumes that a better and

broader understanding of the phenomenon under investigation is informed by both research objectives/questions and emerging insights from the data. All interview was audio taped and transcribed by researchers. The first authors checked transcript against the audiotaped for accuracy, authors read through the transcript to identify the relevance and significance of the representative. Thematic analysis therefore was adapted where themes from interview were identified and categorized. We explored interview transcripts, audio records, and emerging themes; key findings in each theme were reported and discussed.

Ethical Considerations
The following ethical issues were adhered to: participants were informed of the purpose and nature of the study, privacy and confidentiality, and potential harm and benefits of the study. This information helped the participants to make informed decisions to participate or not, and withdraw from the study if they would like to do so. Since we were keeping social distance informed consent was done verbally. About 12 respondents out of 15 asked researchers to consider voice conversation as confidential and this was observed.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
The study explored challenges encountered by pre-primary children during COVID-19 pandemic period in Tanzania. Furthermore, strategies adopted and opportunities available in a bid to cope with the pandemic were explored. Findings are presented in three categories which are challenges, strategies and opportunities. From these, emerging themes are reported and discussed as key findings.

Challenges faced young children during COVID-19 pandemic
The findings of the study reveal that there were various challenges faced by young children after the school closure due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The reported challenges were associated with social, emotional and psychological wellbeing as describe below.

Social emotional and psychological wellbeing
According to Mihaela (2015) positive emotional to the child such as feeling happy, experience love, inspiration and inner peace play important part in social emotional and psychological well-being. School represents the most important environment for the child's social emotional and psychological well-being (Mihaela, 2015), which was lacking during

COVID-19 period. This situation affected children in many aspects; for example, it was reported that some children felt lonely and they didn't play as they used to do in school, this was exemplified by children keeping on crying and feeling bored at home. Participants in most data sources demonstrated this type of behaviours as the most challenges as exemplifies by the following quotes:

> My child all the time feels lonely because she misses her friends and teachers to play with. All the time she asks me to send her to school or call her friends to come home and play with her (Parent 1 & 3)

> My child is no longer active because she sleeps a lot. She sometimes cries because she misses friends. I can't be of help because I'm not a teacher, only teachers are trained to help our children so I let her cry… (Parent 4, 7 & 9)

> My child seems to be bored staying at home and doing the same thing; with no peer to play (Parent 5).

Ecological model of social and emotional wellbeing is based in the interaction of multiple setting such as homes, schools, and community where a child interacts with multiple people including peers (See also Mihaela, 2015). When one of the settings lacks may affect the developmental trajectory of the child. For example, peer groups have been identified as significant factors for child development as illustrated by the following quotes:

> My child is so reserved; sometimes he keeps quiet for hours. He does not respond to my calls. He tells me that he needs his friend to play with. I note his health is affected as he becomes thinner as days go on, I'm afraid, as I don't know when Covid 19 will end (Parent 6 & 10).

> My child sometimes asks me to call his teacher so that they can talk or even ask when the school will open (Parent 2).

> My child enjoys having meals with friends especially at school, at home I used to call his friends so they come home and eat; but due to corona this is not possible, this situation makes my child unhappy (Parent 3).

Some parents get frustrated with situation of their children as they found the situation is not helpful to their children as demonstrated by two parents in the quote below:

> My child can't play, read, sing, is like everything has stopped, she keeps asking when will I send her to school. The situation is frustrating; my fear is that she may get frustrated; nothing is going on (Parent 12 & 15).

The findings are in line with that of UNICEF (2020) arguments that COVID-19 has limited children the culture of playing together which may affect their moral and emotional development in the future. Furthermore, it was revealed that the reported findings were associated with poor health as reported by parents 6 and 10. These finding are inline with findings from other studies which report that children's lifestyles of isolation from peers is a source of stress and anxiety which limit child's development cognitively, physically, socially, emotionally and morally (Elkind, 2001; Rosenteld & Wise, 2000). The stay home and isolation have been effective measures against the pandemic, however, it has deprived the social interaction of the child which may affect the child's holistic development in future (Esenturk, 2020).

The deprivation of social interaction due to isolation has been reported as an inhibitor of creativity in children, which may affect the cognitive development of a child. Furthermore, parents perceive that children face multiple challenges which can be solved by the teachers. This indicates that not only children facing challenges, but also parents are facing multiple challenges in supporting children; the same challenges were reported from Ethiopian parents (Kim & Rose, 2020).

The study also explored opportunities available for young children during the COVID-19 pandemic. Since parents are the best models for their children, it was our assumptions that they can plan something different to help their children cope with the pandemic.

Time to spend with my child

During interview, some parents described that COVID-19 brought children back home which was an opportunity for parents to spend time with their children. It was at this time that parents get to know their children's behaviour and shared skills of literacy as exemplified by the following quote:

> As a parent, I have time to spend with my child. I got time to know the behaviour of my child; I also have time to read and sing with my child (Parents 2, 4, 7 and 11)

> My child has an opportunity to be with me at home all the time, so she is learning and doing daily household activities like sweeping and cleaning dishes (Parent 5)

Despite parent's acknowledgement opportunity of COVID-19, some parents didn't perceive it as an opportunity because children were deprived of their learning environment which may limit freeness and innovation. After all, parents perceive that classrooms are made for children to concentrate and built-up innovation skills and parents described that:

> The best opportunity is to help children remain home with their parents, but we can't say this is an opportunity at the moment because children do not concentrate in one place for a long time, the child is always in movement which can be managed only by teachers and peers (Parent 10).

Some parents reported that there is no opportunity out of COVID-19 rather than chaos because they noted that their children were deprived to play, and literacy development as illustrated below:

> Corona virus brought chaos because children could not read, sing and play because schools have been closed. You know teachers are the one who teach children to play as well as acceptable (Parents 1, 8 &13)

> My child has an opportunity to watch cartoons (Parents 3,6 &14)

> My child has an opportunity to learn good hygiene practices such as regular and thorough hand-wash (Parent 10).

Kuehn (2021) posits that siblings can impact each other's development more than parents, where older ones can influence younger one positively or negatively. Findings from interview revealed that during COVID-19 it was an opportunity for siblings to work together as young children learned from the older ones which was a positive impact as stated in the quote below:

> I have three (3) children, one in Pre-primary Education (PPE), and others are in primary three and five classes. Those in primary school were given weekly assignments by their teachers. So, when doing their assignments, their sibling was also forced to write or draw. I consider this as an opportunity for him to learn from older siblings (Parent 2).

This study aimed to explore opportunities available for pre-primary children during COVID-19. It was revealed that parents had different views; some parents had time to spend with their children which helped them to monitor the behaviour of their children. For example, it was reported that children had opportunities to learn good hygiene from their parents and older siblings. This implies that to some children's behaviours were nurtured closely during this period since both parents and children stayed at home. Children also learned literacy from their older siblings and parents; in some families, older children were teaching the younger ones. The findings are in line with that of Ginsburg (2007) who argues that parents' reading with their children has a great influence on a child's literacy development. However, some parents view that there was no opportunity for their children because children were displaying strange behaviours that were to be managed by the teachers. This implies that some parents escape their roles as parents are considered the first teachers in the home context. However, to a larger extent, child stimulations are done during interaction with teachers and peers in the school context where they learn different social skills (see also Deverelli, 2020). Nevertheless, school closure and stay home has changed the children's lifestyles which may bring negative perception in future, the argument is in line with that of Xiang et al. (2020).

Strategies used by parents to help young children during COVID-19 pandemic
Several strategies used by parents to help young children cope with stay-home after school closure due to COVID-19 pandemic were identified. These include: teaching children literacy at home, allowing children to watch educative cartoons and buying story books.

Teaching children literacy at home
Parents form the best people who build a foundation of literacy in their children and form the best predictor of early literacy success in their children. From interview, it was revealed that literate parents played their part by teaching literacy to their children at their homes. This was done through buying books for their children and sometimes singing with children. On this, some parents had these to say:

> I'm always reminding my child to watch Ubongo kids which is suitable for children, thereafter I design questions for my child to answer, like

> repeating the song and style. I allow also him to watch cartoons which are designed for children (Parents 3 & 6)

> Since my child is very active, I decided to buy him three storybooks with pictures. Sometimes his siblings and myself read stories and ask him to identify pictures and re-tell the stories (Parent 2).

> Luckily, I am a secondary school teacher, I often ask my child to count and write (Parent 11).

Furthermore, some parents adopted a strategy of designing songs and used to sing with their children. These strategies helped children to enjoy their stay at home. However, these strategies were possible for children with literate and affluent parents as commented by Cashman and Bhattacharjea (2020), since it is difficult to connect children with the media without television, smart phone, and/or lack of electricity. In addition, it is equally difficult to choose developmentally appropriate media activities for children when parents are illiterate (See also Kim & Rose, 2020).

Allow children to watch educative cartoons
In the process of coping with the pandemic, it was revealed that some parents allowed their children to watch "Ubongo kids" a common television program in Tanzania. Some parents narrated that:

> I'm always reminding my child to watch Ubongo kids which is suitable for children, thereafter I design questions for my child to answer, like repeating the song and style. I allow also him to watch cartoons for children (Parents 3 & 6)

The strategy of connecting children with media was supported with Gallagher (2020). However, this strategy is possible for children with literate and affluent parents as commented by Cashman and Bhattacharjea (2020), since it is difficult to connect children with the media without television, smart phone, and/or lack of electricity. In addition, it is equally difficult to choose developmentally appropriate media activities for children when parents are illiterate (See also Kim & Rose, 2020).

Buying and reading storybooks
Another strategy adopted by parents was to buy simple story books with pictures. Parents set aside time to read and count with their children. However, parents who engaged children in these activities were teachers

and the educated ones. Kim and Rose (2020) have the same arguments that supporting children at home is dependent on whether parents are literate. Furthermore, the findings are in line with that of Drajea (2015) and Ghanney (2018) that parental literacy skills affect children's acquisition of literacy and numeracy, which was useful for some of the parents during the pandemic.

However, some parent's view that only teachers can manage their children and that nothing can be done without teachers. This indicates that not all parents have skills to manage their children as indicated in the quotes below.

> I have nothing to do with my child. You know teachers are very good at designing strategies that help children cope with problems like corona virus, but when children are at home nothing can be done (Parents 4, 6 & 9)

> With corona virus nothing can be done, children are so stubborn at home, I'm looking forward to the solution of corona so that children resume schools (Parent 1)

> Teaching young children is not a simple task, I bought an exercise book for my child to write every day; but sincerely speaking, I rarely teach him. Right now, I don't even know where the book is (Parent 5).

> What should I do? I ask my children to stay at home and play around the home vicinity. My child who is at pre-primary class is just playing with his siblings (Parent 13).

Interestingly some parents reported to have no strategies; claiming that teachers are responsible to help children in all aspects in the pre-primary education setting. The findings were conceived as unexpected since it is our belief and referring to literature, parents are the first teachers in the home context (Ceka & Murati, 2016). However, the findings are in line with that of Kim and Rose (2020) from Ethiopian context who argue that little attention was paid to pre-primary education as the government encouraged only primary and secondary school students to continue education from home. But parents' ability to support their children's learning from home is highly dependent on whether they have had any experience of schooling, or whether they can read.

According to parents, it is only teachers that have good strategies to help children, the best solution was to wait till the end of the pandemic for teachers to play their roles. The findings are contrary to the norm that parents are the first teachers, so we expected almost all parents to report strategies aiming at helping their children cope with the pandemic. On the other hand, parents feel that they don't have skills similar to those possessed by teachers to help their children. This implies that most parents perceived learning to solely be done in classrooms; which is contrary to literature that developmental domain of the child is stimulated in multiple contexts, such as homes, schools and community where relationships and socialization are taking place (Mihaela, 2015).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
This study has highlighted challenges faced by young children especially pre-primary children during the peak period of COVID-19 pandemic. Opportunities available and strategies adopted by the parents were also explored. Multiple challenges faced by children were reported; which was caused by the deprivation of children's social interaction with peers and the community at large. Since the child's brain develops very quickly at the age of 0-5 years through social interaction, the challenges reported are more likely to deprive children's development in many aspects; physically, cognitively, socially, emotionally and morally. We feel that these challenges are not limited to children but are more likely to be facing policy makers, school practitioners, early childhood stakeholders, families as well as education institutions. However, in this study we noted two significant challenges, these were; deprivation of their right to education and limited socialization with peers. These remain to be challenges especially for poor families and families with illiterate parents.

Recommendations; parents need awareness on early child development issues so that they can support holistic development of their children and policy makers should advocate on this. In order to ensure educational continuity during and after the pandemic, the government should develop strategies to empower parents to support their children in learning at home. Guidance should be provided to parents on how to stimulate, play, and communicate with their children in age-appropriate ways; and on how to develop literacy and numeracy skills at home. It is also recommended that simple story and picture books for pre-primary children should be prepared and distributed to remote areas; this will

serve children who can't be connected to the media due to various reasons.

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Teachers' Perceptions on the Relationship between Social Competence and Reading Skills Acquisition in Primary School Pupils

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ABSTRACT

This paper set out to examine teachers' perceptions of the link between social competence skills and reading skills acquisition in the Kiswahili language for standard four pupils in public primary schools. This was a qualitative study, made on the population of the Kiswahili language subject teachers. The study was conducted in Babati Township Council, Manyara Region, Tanzania. It involved 17 selected public primary schools where one subject and school head teachers from each school were involved. Data were collected using a semi-structured interview guide. *The results show that the most important social competence skills for the acquisition of reading skills are communication skills, as other skills depend on the pupil's ability to communicate his/her ideas well. The study posits that social competence skills have a positive impact on pupils' acquisition of reading skills. The study recommends an additional curriculum that imparts pupils with social competence skills for reading and academic achievements at large.*

Keywords: *Perception, teachers, reading skills, social competence skills, public school*

INTRODUCTION

Reading can be defined as a receptive skill, which involves the ability to interpret or decode printed symbols. It is a skill, which is the ground of almost all processes of learning, and is necessary for pupils to learn other subjects (Geske & Ozola, 2008). More than 70 years ago, the international community declared literacy a basic human right (Smith-Greenaway, 2015). Unfortunately, this expectation has not become a realization for many children, and the high rate of illiteracy continues to

have an adverse effect in many nations (UNESCO, 2015). If a pupil's reading level is low, it implies difficulties in the acquisition of several other subjects and consequently obtaining education in general.

There has been a slight shift in the focus of schooling in recent decades. This is because traditionally, schools had focused on academic instruction; maths, language, arts, science, and social studies. Efforts, however, to educate the 'whole child' through social and emotional learning have proved to be important in improving the pupil's mental and physical health, alongside academic success (Durlak et al., 2011). Nonetheless, evidence shows that social competence and learning are related and should also be the focus of education. As a social environment, a school is where students get involved in classroom activities by self-regulating and harmoniously interacting with peers and teachers (Belsky, et al., 2006), and where expectations and norms are established.

Pupils not only learn academics in the classrooms but also how to acquire academic content basically through interacting with others (Westby, 1997). As a result, social competence skills are important for pupils to learn alongside academic skills. According to Lopes and Salovey (2006), emotional control, for instance, makes students concentrate and engage in classroom activities by positively interacting with others in the school community. Consequently, schools must develop pupils' social capabilities to produce not only responsible and good but also knowledgeable citizens (Zins et al., 2007). It is important to identify the contexts within which social competence skills programmes can have a commendable impact. Several aspects have been identified as being central to the effective implementation of social competence skills programmes; teachers being one of the important aspects (Graczyk et al., 2006).

Since teachers are the primary deliverers of learning instructions at schools, their perceptions about and support for social competence skills learning can have an impact on the adoption and sustainability of the learning programmes. Their beliefs also are the key indicators of their judgments and perceptions, which in turn, affect their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). First of all, teachers' confidence in supporting social competence skills are linked with their adherence to the programmes and classroom management during lessons (Ringwalt, et al., 2003). In

addition, teachers are more likely to continue enhancing the development of social competence skills when they feel comfortable with and passionate about the programme (Rohrbach et al.,, 1993). Therefore, teachers' confidence has been associated with their perception concerning both the importance of; and challenges in relation to teaching social competence skills.

Another aspect that affects the effectiveness of social competence skills teaching is the teacher's commitment. Teachers have to be committed to promoting their ability to incorporate social competence skills into their classrooms against professional development. According to McCormick et al.,,(1995), professional development increases the likelihood of implementing social competence skills learning significantly. The commitment to social competence skills learning professional development from all school stakeholders, including the endorsement of a shared vision by the school community, is crucial for school success (Brackett, et al., 2011). The commitment of teachers to social skills competence learning influences their ability to support the pupils to attain both social competence and reading skills and to model the same skills they support in pupils.

The third important aspect determining teachers' adherence to social competence skills teaching programme is their perception of the importance of social competence skills to pupils' academic success, including reading (Buchanan, 2009). Acknowledging the important role of social competence skills is among the barriers to pupils' academic attainment. Teachers who perceive the development of pupils' social competence skills to be crucial just like other subjects (maths and others) are more likely to set aside time to incorporate social competence skills into their daily teaching practices (Pajares, 1992).

Furthermore, the extent to which teachers perceive that their schools support social competence skills teaching can influence the impact of the social competence skills' teaching and learning process. Leadership by heads of schools may affect the implementation of the programme at its inception, and continue to affect its sustainability over time. It is a fact that the teaching and learning effects are much stronger when the school administrations provide support and implementation quality (Ransford, Greenberg, Domitrovich, Small, & Jacobson, 2009).

Research has been done on the perceptions of teachers about educational prosperity, and the impact of their perceptions and expectations. According to Hayes (2013), perception is an important factor influencing early educational practices. In his study on perspectives of preschool teachers in Australia, Peters (2002) found that teachers perceived social competence skills as the most important factor for the development of practical skills related to independence, self-help, ability to listen, ability to read, sit still as well as taking turns; which have a positive link with reading skills acquisition.

Gresham, Elliott, and Black (1987) contend that the type of social competence skills perceived by teachers as critical for the pupil's academic success has implications for their selection of skills to teach. Thus, research has portrayed teachers to value academic-related skills more highly than social skills (Gresham et al., 1987). It should however be noted that schools are a social environment, and a lot of what pupils do to be achievers takes place in the form of social interactions among pupils themselves as well as other school community members. According to Knapczyk and Rodes (n.d), these social interactions do not occur only on the playground, school halls, and cafeterias, but they form the foundations of classroom instruction and manifest themselves in the teaching methods and activities teachers use while teaching the core basic skills.

Another study by O'Kane (2007) in Ireland, on the transition from preschool to primary school, found that early school teachers perceived three social competence skills as basic for reading performance among pupils at the primary school level: independence and self-help skills, communication and language skills, and the ability to concentrate sit and listen. Reading performance according to O'Kane involves understanding written text, developing and interpreting meaning, and using meanings of texts appropriate to the purpose and situation. Many teachers thought that children should be sent to school based on whether they have developed those skills in conjunction with their age. O'Kane's study forms a critical basis for the current study as it builds on the importance of pupils who are socially competent in relation to their reading performance.

Studies conducted in Tanzania indicate that some primary school pupils cannot read Kiswahili fluently by the time they complete their primary education (Ngorosho, 2011). Several factors have been put forward about pupils' poor reading acquisition. These factors are such as lack of in-

service training for teachers, lack of teacher incentives, a large number of pupils in one class and lack of teaching and learning facilities relevant to reading the Kiswahili language in schools (Lymo, 2015); inadequate mastery of literacy teaching methods, shortage of textbooks, supplementary books, and other reading materials, pupils' truancy, and regular changes of the curriculum without proper training of teachers on the changes (Ligembe, 2014); shortage of teachers, low teachers' salary, as well as the poor home environment (Ngorosho, 2010). Literature on the link between social competence skills and reading skills acquisition from Africa and Tanzania, in particular, is limited. Studying such a phenomenon in the Tanzanian context, therefore, would add a practical understanding of its impact in the African context. It is this background that necessitated this study; to investigate teachers' perceptions of the relationship between social competence skills and reading skills acquisition among standard four pupils in public primary schools.

METHODOLOGY

Scrutiny of the topic at hand required an in-depth understanding. As such, a qualitative research approach was appropriate to address the need of the study. Therefore, the author employed an in-depth interview to illuminate teachers' perceptions of the relationship between social competencies skills and reading skills acquisition. This study was conducted in Babati Township Council, Manyara Region in Tanzania. The region was purposefully selected to participate in the study because it is one of the moderate-performing regions in standard seven leaving examinations (Uwezo, 2017). The Council, Wards, and Schools were also purposively recruited to participate in the study because Babati Township Council has a mixture of urban and peri-urban schools. This mixture was important as the author's interest was to balance between good readers (in urban schools) and moderate readers (in peri-urban schools). A total of six out of eight wards were selected to participate in the study, with 17 schools out of 30 also selected from the six wards. Many schools were sampled from Bagara Ward because the ward was the largest, and had scattered schools; some in Babati town and others along the sides of the town (interior).

Table 1: Distribution of wards and schools

Ward	School
Maisaka	Sinai
	Kiongozi
	Maisaka
Nangara	Ziwani
	Nangara
Singe	Gendi
	Managha
Bonga	Bonga
	Himiti
Bagara	Darajani
	Babati
	Harambee
	Kwaang'w
	Komoto
	Oysterbay
Babati	Hangoni
	Waang'waray

Teachers (both subject and heads of schools) were purposively selected alongside their schools.

This study involved all standard four Kiswahili language subject teachers. The Kiswahili language was preferred because it is one of the emphasised items in the 2014 Education and Training Policy, as the national language (Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 2014). It is also used as a medium of instruction in public primary schools in Tanzania.

This study employed semi-structured interviews for collecting data. Questions were prepared and administered to the head teachers and subject teachers. The format and sequence of questions were dictated by the context and the experiences of the individual teachers, based on the researcher's best judgment at any given moment in the interview. Each interview session lasted for around 40-50 minutes. Interviews were meant to capture teachers' views on the relationship between possession of social competence skills, and reading acquisition in primary school pupils. Semi-structured interviews were preferred because they provided participants with the freedom to express their views on their terms.

The analysis of the interview data proceeded through the following three main steps: preparing and organising data; creating categories/themes; and coding, presentation, and interpretation. Preparation and organization of the data for analysis started in the field. This involved listening to each audio-taped interview. This practice not only enabled the researcher to familiarize himself with the data but also to obtain a general sense of the data. This was followed by a verbatim transcription of the interview proceedings. An inductive approach was employed to derive themes and allow unanticipated themes to emerge from the data set as well as help to determine whether the themes were well supported by the data from the field. The inductive phase involved reading the transcripts repeatedly.

After creating themes, transcripts were re-read for coding. This was done by identifying text elements – words, sentence (s), and or paragraph (s) – from each transcript and linking them into respective themes. Furthermore, all the coded data extracts for each theme were reviewed to determine whether they form a coherent pattern. This enabled the author to rework and refine the themes and related extracts. Data are presented simply and straightforwardly with rich descriptions supported by representative verbatim quotations. The interpretation of the findings is informed by a spiral-like movement, which involves going back and forth between the data and the evolving interpretation.

FINDINGS

Human beings are endowed with the abilities to hear, see, smell, touch, and taste; and they use these to sense the physical world and get aware of what happens around them. This process of sensing the physical world is completed by perception, which allows individuals to identify and recognize the presence of different kinds of stimuli, and evaluate and assign meanings to them (Broadbent, 2013). A person's attitude towards a phenomenon encompasses his or her point of view about that phenomenon (thought); how he or she feels about it (emotion), as well as the actions (e.g., behaviours) he or she engages in as a result of attitude towards that phenomenon.

Participants' Characteristics

While it was ideal to hear the voices of all the teachers in the region, their large number necessitated the sampling of 34 teachers (two teachers from each school) to represent the rest. Table 2 presents the background information of the studied teachers.

Table 2

Teachers' background information (N=34)

Variable		Number (N=34)	Percentage (%)
Sex	Male	6	17.7
	Female	28	82.3
Age	21-30	4	11.8
	31-40	16	47.0
	41-50	11	32.4
	51-60	3	8.8
Education	Grade A certificate	20	58.8
	Diploma in education	11	32.4
	Bachelor degree	2	5.9
	Master degree	1	2.9
Position	Head teacher	15	44.2
	Subject teacher	17	50
	Assistant head teacher	2	5.9
Teaching experience	1-10	5	14.7
	11-20	15	44.2
	21-30	8	23.5
	31-40	5	14.7
	40+	1	2.9

Table 2 indicates that more than half of the sampled teachers (28) were females. Very few (4) were young teachers (21-30 years); meaning that a good number of teachers who participated in this study were mature enough to fulfill their required teaching responsibilities. As it was anticipated by the researcher, many teachers (20) had Grade 'A' teaching certificates. This is because a grade 'A' certificate is the minimum required qualification for a Tanzanian teacher at the public primary school level. However, one teacher had a master's degree in education. Concerning teaching experiences, many teachers (23) had 11 to 30 years in the profession. Only one teacher had more than 40 years of teaching experience.

Teachers' Perceptions of Social Competence Skills in Primary School Pupils

The author inquired about the participants' perceptions of social competence skills in pupils. 31 participants (91.2%) out of 34 perceived a socially competent pupil as the generally punctual one. A punctual pupil

would go early to school, a pupil who would willingly engage in cleaning the school environment, attempt classroom assignments, and a pupil who never misses classroom sessions unnecessarily. In addition, a socially competent pupil was perceived as the one who would make follow ups of the comments given by teachers which relate to the assignments.

It was, however, argued that some pupils tend to display good social competence skills in schools, but not at their home. A good number of participants (24) asserted that the socially competent pupil displays the same skills at home and school as well. Participants added that well-disciplined pupils, for instance, can be traced from their families, and notorious pupils in schools normally display the same behaviours in their homes. Sometimes the situation can be worse at home because some pupils tend to be calm while in school as they fear teachers. The following quote from the Gendi Primary School subject teacher substantiates this view;

> A socially competent pupil here, first of all, I would identify him/her from the family he/she comes from. I first notice the way s/he is dressed when s/he comes to school. The way s/he responds to verbal interactions and instructions; you will just get to know him/her. Pupils who come from well-mannered families; families that protect their children are easily identified in and outside classrooms. They are different from those who come from anti-social families. You know that families differ in how they raise their children. There are families in which parents don't care about their children; children wake up in the morning, dress on their own, and sometimes come to school without eating, something which affects their state of learning. So, there is a big discrepancy between pupils who come from these two types of families.

It was further reported that socially competent pupils are easy to teach and handle in and outside classrooms compared to their counterparts. Participants considered pupils with poor social competence skills as those who are not cooperative, undisciplined, inattentive, disobedient, and other similar behaviours. Pupils with poor social competence skills, according to the participants, pose many challenges to teachers and fellow pupils. They require teachers' attention throughout the teaching and learning process. This may lead to unfinished lessons, and in the end, it affects curriculum coverage.

Additionally, the participants believed that a good number of pupils with poor social competence skills came from families with economic

hardship. It was found from the participants that a large number of pupils in Babati Township came from families with low socio-economic status, which according to the interviews, deprived them of social competence skills. The reason behind this is that parents or guardians from these families spend most of their time working to meet their daily basic needs, leaving no time to raise their children in proper manners. Similarly, the participants identified pupils raised by single parents as also lacking social competence skills. The Maisaka Primary School head said;

> Do you get me when I say that pupils come from families with hard life? Yeah, sometimes pupils come to school without eating anything at home. Sometimes they tell us that the parents are fighting all night, others come crying that their mothers have walked away as a result of fights. It's hard to raise these pupils in such situations, that's why they learn anti-social behaviours! It's like they raise themselves, they can't be socially competent.

It was also found out that some pupils lived with grandparents, mostly grandmothers, in the study area. The participants said that many youths in Manyara, especially girls had migrated to large cities such as Arusha, Dodoma, and Dar es Salaam for petty businesses or to work as barmaids. Participants further reported that because of their hard lives in cities, they tended to take babies they begotten back to their poor parents to raise in rural areas. This had a considerable in the raising of their children as old grandparents were not able to raise their grandchildren to the expectations.

Social Competence Skills on Pupils' Reading Skills Acquisition
The author investigated the teachers' perceptions of the link between pupils being socially competent and their ability to specifically read in the Kiswahili language. Participants were requested to provide their opinions on how they view pupils who are socially competent and their reading skills acquisition.

Generally, there was an agreement (among all the participants (100%) that pupils with social competence skills namely; obedience, attentiveness, cooperation, assertiveness, confidence, communication, self-control, and others, were likely to acquire reading skills faster than their counterparts. Such pupils were reported to be easy to teach because they would follow instructions properly, and would thus, understand what is taught easily too. It was noted from the participants that some pupils

with poor social competence skills also acquired reading skills easily. They referred to such pupils as exceptional. A subject teacher from Babati Primary School had the following to say in relation to social competence skills and reading acquisition;

> …just by looking at them, you will notice that socially competent pupils to a greater extent master reading skill easily, because, first of all, they are not afraid of trying new things. You will find them sometimes mispronouncing written words, yet they persist until they pronounce the word correctly. Their ability to interact with confidence also favours them. They confidently face teachers whenever they face a challenge in learning to read. There are those whom we can refer to as anti-social, but who still can acquire reading skills fast. These to me are exceptional, and I remember in college we learned about this group of pupils. But these are very few; most of the pupils with reading skills mastery are those who are socially competent.

Additionally, socially competent pupils were reported to be eager to read different materials, would ask questions in the classroom, and even go to the staffroom in case they needed more clarifications. This, in turn, increases their quest for reading, hence, acquiring reading skills faster than those with poor social competence skills. Teachers also reported enjoying interacting with socially competent pupils because they easily comprehend the classroom instructions compared to pupils with poor social competence skills. This results in teachers being more supportive in developing their reading skills.

DISCUSSION

As defined earlier, perception can be viewed as the process by which individuals interpret and organize sensations to produce a meaningful experience of the world. It was important to study the perception of teachers for social competence skills and reading acquisition in pupils. This is because teachers are considered central in nurturing both social and academic competencies.

Punctuality was emphasized, in and outside the school environment, as among the important aspects that define the pupil's mastery of social competence skills. Participants additionally stressed that socially competent pupils are teachable because of their high ability to follow instructions. It was reported that a large number of pupils with poor social competence skills came from families that were faced with hardship;

where parents and guardians spent most of their time trying to make their hands meet, rather than taking care of their pupils. More interestingly, there was a considerable number of pupils in the study area who were raised by single parents and grandparents. This had a great contribution to the poor raising of such pupils, hence the failure in acquiring proper social competence skills by pupils in the area. According to Farmer (2000), pupils with antisocial behaviour normally tend to have higher levels of conduct disorders and school dropouts. Therefore, pupils had to strongly behave on the prosocial behaviour dimension, and low on the antisocial behaviour dimension to be socially competent.

As for teachers' perceptions concerning social competence skills and reading acquisition, almost both head teachers and subject teachers (31 out of 34) in the schools studied thought that the two competencies (social and reading) are closely related; in the sense that socially competent pupils are more likely to succeed in reading compared to their counterparts. Teachers' perceptions according to Rosenthal (1994) have a great impact on the type of learning environment they create for learners, as well as their learners' academic success and beliefs about their own abilities. Learners perform better when their teachers perceive that they will succeed, partly because teachers handle learners differently when they hold high expectations for them.

The findings of the current study reflect those of Bowden, et al., (2003) who reported that teachers' attitudes, perceptions, and support of social competence skills can affect pupils' adoption, sustainability, and impact their reading ability. This is because they are the primary delivery of both social competencies and academic affairs. Pajares (1992) adds that teachers' perceptions of the relationship between social competence skills and reading success are key indicators of their beliefs and judgments, which, in turn, affect their teaching practices.

In their study on Teacher Perceptions of Students' Social Competence and School Adjustment in Elementary Schools in Lithunia, Magelinskaite-Legkauskiene, et al., (2016) found that teacher perception of social competence skills is an important factor in teacher perceptions of school adjustment in elementary grades. Teachers perceived that learning-related social competence skills activate motivational and cognitive processes that help in shielding the pupils from external and internal distractions and therefore facilitating academic prospects.

The consistency of the findings of the current study, and the existing empirical evidence has the basis on the fact that social competence skills, regardless of the differences in social and cultural contexts play similar roles in different aspects of human life. Teachers' expectations of learners' behaviour have the potential to promote educational experiences, including reading. It is also the fact that teachers are the pillars of schooling and learning, and their perceptions of the pupils' learning have an effect on every aspect of the educational process.

The participants were of the opinion that the pupils' mastery of these skills would help them catch up on the reading skills easily. Several studies also agree with the findings from the current study. Caprara et al.,, (2000) for instance posit that assertion skills are a catalyst for reading development. This would probably be because pupils with good assertion skills are confident in and outside their classrooms; they do not fear interacting with their peers, teachers, and other community members.

In addition, the current study also found that self-control and self-management skills were related to pupils' reading achievement, school/classroom adjustment, and even school readiness. Self-control includes the ability to control impulses, delay gratification, resist temptation and peer pressure, reflect on one's feelings, and monitor oneself (Han & Kemple, 2006). Duckworth and Seligman (2005) argue that self-control among school pupils cultivates the setting of high academic goals that yield an increase in effort resulting in higher grades. Concerning self-management skills, Davis et al. (2014) examined goal setting, academic self-efficacy, and self-management of grade three students. They came up with results that showed a positive relationship between skills and reading development.

Cooperation was highly ranked by the participants in the current study. The finding is related to what was found by Elias and Haynes (2008) that cooperation (i.e., relationship skills) at a time was significant to academic performance (reading and maths grades). In addition, previous research has shown that interpersonal competencies related to self-management are positively associated with reading achievement indices. For example, students with high self-discipline or self-management skills outperform their peers in reading ability, as well as on several other academic

performance variables, earning higher GPAs and standardized achievement test scores (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005).

CONCLUSION

Mastery of social competence skills is an important aspect of children's development. Social competence skills are more important at a younger age than in adulthood. The reviewed literature and the study findings show that the early years act as a foundation for individuals' development. Hence, imparting social competence skills in the early years is vital for the future success of children. With regard to reading skills, socially competent pupils are more likely to acquire and master reading skills than their counterparts.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study focused on the relationship between the acquisition and mastery of reading skills in early primary school pupils and social competence skills. The findings revealed that social competence skills are important for the pupils' acquisition and mastery of reading skills in particular, academic performance, and life success in general. However, there were no specific practices that were meant for enhancing social competence skills in schools. Social competence skills in pupils were coincidentally developed while pupils were learning to read, or other academic subjects.

Adding a new curriculum with social competence skills teachings may be a big challenge in the teaching and learning process today. This is because schools are required to have pupils maintain higher levels of academic performance, or teachers' jobs may be compromised. Although it may be challenging to have an additional curriculum that imparts pupils with social competence skills, it has a lasting positive effect on the children's lives through positive social interactions and academic achievements as well. It is therefore imperative for the government through the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to consider establishing social competence skills curriculum in the early years of basic education.

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Role of Reward System on Teacher Motivation in Public Secondary Schools in Ilala Municipality

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ABSTRACT
This study sought to link performance, the level of teachers' motivation and the reward systems existing in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality. The study involved a total of 397 respondents including teachers, quality assurers, and heads of schools as key respondents to whom questionnaires and interviews were administered (only 20 participants were involved in the interview out of 397). Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The study findings revealed that there was no relationship between the level of teachers' motivation and the reward systems existing in public secondary schools. While the reward system such as timely salary payment, the existence of timely rewarding system with clear performance standards set for rewarding, and existence of fair opportunities for professional development among teachers are linked to performance. However, findings further revelaed that the majority of teachers were demotivated by factors such as lack of transport, office space, housing facilities, poor working conditions, such as, shortage of classrooms, which resulted into having packed classrooms. Other factors include unclear reward system and low salaries compared to other professions. It is recommended that rewarding systems should be clear and communicated to teachers. Ilala Municipality should ensure the availability of teachers houses in school proximity, adopting clear guidelines for rewarding teachers, ensure that teachers are paid reasonable salaries, improving teacher working environment such as ensuring availability of teaching resources in schools. It is also recommended that, future research should be expanded to other regions of Tanzania; and includes more variable; such as issues of workload, stress and stress management and mental health towards employees' performance. The analysis techniques also should include multilevel analysis as it is expected to have groups and nested data. To conclude, the government should improve teaching and learning environment.

Keywords: *Motivation, work performance, rewarding systems, working condition.*

INTRODUCTION

Teachers are responsible for structuring an effective classroom climate for effective learning to take place. Teachers become pivotal in enhancing human potential through effective teaching. It has been argued that it is necessary for all employees in the organization to do willingly more than their duties to increase the impact in their profession (Terz & Kurt, 2005). Raising qualified community members who can enhance the achievement of the 2030 agenda for sustainable development and Tanzania development vision of 2025 is only possible when there are highly motivated teachers (Sulak, 2012). Marques (2010) argued that motivation, satisfaction, and performance are interdependent. Kivaze (2000) noted that the indicators of motivation are higher performance including lower absenteeism, low turnover intentions, satisfaction, and performance.

Indeed, lack of job satisfaction among teachers' results in absenteeism from school, aggressive behavior towards colleagues and learners, early exit from the teaching profession, and psychological withdrawal from work. These tendencies, in turn, do lower teachers' work performance. Individual performance can be defined as a function of the ability and the willingness of the worker to perform the job (Ngumi, 2005). In this respect, motivation has been argued that it guides people's actions and behaviors toward achievement of certain life goals (Analoui, 2000). Motivation can be conceptualized as both positive and negative attitudes toward what one is doing at the workplace. Motivation is often categorized into intrinsic and extrinsic (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Motivation as an incentive has a substantial contribution to the effectiveness of teachers and on the performance of learners (Enderlin-Lampe, 1997).

The recent finding in cognitive neuroscience indicates that, there is a clear connection between the learning outcomes and the way teachers approach their teaching. Studies have also shown that rewards such as money enhance learning (Murayama & Kitagami, 2014); and good working environment motivate people to work hard (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). On this basis, the key argument by educationists remains, what is the role of motivation in education (Howard-Jones & Jay, 2016); such as the role to initiate, guide, and maintain goal-oriented behavior towards

assignments regardless of obstacles (Baumeister & Voh, 2004).

For example, the report by Dar es Salaam City Council (2004) indicates that in Ilala Municipality, teachers were not comfortable with their working conditions. The report associated this situation with very low teacher-house ratios compared to the actual number of teachers, poor physical infrastructure, and the large number of pupils in the classroom resulting into poor performance. Based on this background, the study intends to find out how different rewarding systems influence motivation among public secondary school teachers in Ilala Municipality; and hence improve their work performance. The embodiment of quality in educational programs can hardly be attained without considering improving the welfare of teachers'- that is motivation.

i) This study is in line with Tanzania Educational Policy which provides for the motivation of teachers as means to the provision of quality education (MOEC, 1995). The goal to attain quality education will not be achieved if all stakeholders and policy makers now and in the future do not pay attention to teacher-job satisfaction. It is therefore important to investigate how rewarding systems affect level of motivation among teachers in public secondary school in Ilala Municipality. The study has two objectiveas follows: To examine the role of reward systems designed to motivate teachers and its effect on performance in public secondary school in Ilala Municipality ii) To explore the current state of teacher's motivation in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality.

METHODOLOGY
The study employed mixed research approach and was conducted in Ilala Municipality. Stratified random sampling design was used to select quality assurance officers, headmasters/mistresses and other teachers in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality to take part in the study. A total of 397 respondents were involved and data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. Confidentiality was taken care of by protecting and concealing the respondents' identities to avoid being victims of the information supplied in the field. Additionally, the data collected were meant for research purpose only and not otherwise. Interview data were subjected to content analysis. Raw data from the field were tape recorded, thereafter; they were transcribed from the verbatim to text. Thereafter, the transcribed texts were read repeatedly and themes

and subthemes were extracted. Therefore, themes and subthemes were careful examined organised through a constant comparison between two independent coders; and themes were interpreted in a meaningfully way before actual data presentation.

Quantitative data were first subjected to coding before inputting into Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 21.0. Second, data were cleaned in order to identify incomplete responses, unengaged responses, missing values, or unreasonable data so as to improve the quality of data. After data cleaning, the data were re-coded and analyzed using SPSS. Mainly, descriptive statistics as a technique for data analysis was employed; that is frequency and percentages were used. Additionally, both qualitative and quantitative data were merged during the data presentation stage.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The study was primarily conducted to identify level of teachers' motivation and rewarding systems in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality. Specifically, the study sought to explore the existing status of public secondary school teachers work motivation and examine the influence of reward system on teacher's motivation in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality.

Demographic information of the respondents

Demographic details of the respondents comprise information about gender and age of individual respondents. These details were obtained from the tools where respondents were requested to fill their gender and age using age groups provided.

The tools indicated that out of 397 respondents who filled out the questionnaires and some of them (20 interviewees) took part in the interviews 104(26%) were males and the remaining 293(74%) were females. In terms of the ages, the data revealed that 120 (30%) respondents were between 41-50 years old while 183(46%) respondents were between 31-40 years old, 82(20%) respondents were above 51 years old, and 12(3%) respondents were between 21-30 years. The age gap among the respondents clearly shows a balanced combination of the people who took part in the study. The data reveal that the ages of the respondents were crosscutting in that each age group had representatives. Comparing the older and young respondents, the data revealed a striking balance between the respondents of age group between 41 and 51 and

above (50%) and those who are below 41(59%) which means that the findings would include the opinions of the respondents from all age groups.

The reward system on teacher motivation in public secondary schools
The first objective sought to examine the reward system on teacher motivation in public secondary schools in Ilala municipality. The objective looked at how teachers regard reward as a motivation to enhance their performance at work. Information was collected using questionnaires which had 9 items. The questionnaires were filled out by 397 respondents. There were three items to be responded to; they concerned timely payment of salary that link to performance, the existence of timely rewarding system with clear performance standards for rewarding, and existence of fair opportunities for professional development among teachers. The respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires indicating the influence of reward system on teacher motivation in public secondary schools by using three-point likert scale and their responses were recorded as follows.

Timely payment of salary that link to performance
The findings indicate that 128(33%) respondents strongly Disagreed and 105(26%) Disagreed with the statement that, there is a timely payment of the salary which link to teacher performance in secondary schools in Ilala municipality. However, 48(12%) respondents were Undecided; 46(11%) Agreed and 70(18%) respondents strongly agreed with the statement respectively. The results are summarized in Table underneath.

Timely payment of Salary that link to performance

Level of Agreeing	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	70	18
Agree	46	11
Undecided	48	12
Disagree	105	26
Strongly Disagree	128	33
Total	**397**	**100**

For the most of the interviewees who agreed that there is timely salary payment narrated that, though there was timely payment of salaries, the payment was not linked to their performance. One interviewee had the following to say.

> "Teaching is a full-time job and teachers are expected to work extra hours
> to support students learning; this means that teachers have no other source

of income to sustain their living except the monthly salary. There is no one at school or higher administration that cares about how many hours teachers spend after normal working hours to mark students' work, setting examinations, and preparing for the next day lessons. Unlike other professions where they get overtime whenever they work beyond normal working hours, it is completely different for teachers whose workloads and performances don't correspond with their salaries." (Interview, Teacher at School A, 2021)

A quality assurer officer had the following to say regarding the link between teachers' payment and performance.

"So far we do not have clear guiding procedures to pay teachers as per their performances. Salary scales are determined by fixed criteria which include qualifications, experience, additional roles to mention few. However, in my job I have witnessed teachers who work extra mile to support students or school systems but they get no recognition in terms of payment. It is well known that teaching job is different from other professions where an employee can count down what has been achieved at the end of working hours. For teachers it is very difficult even to count the number of hours as a result they do not get paid according to their performance but ends up getting their monthly payment while they might have done double work. It can be one of the motivating factors if teachers are paid according to their performance." (Interview, Quality Assurer Officer, 2021).

Timely rewarding system with clear performance standards for rewarding

The item was designed to find out if teachers understood the standards and guidelines used to reward them. The item also aimed at finding if the processes and guidelines for rewarding were clear and made open to all teachers. The findings indicate that 120(30%) respondents Strongly Disagreed and 121(30%) respondents Disagreed with the statement that there is "timely rewarding system with clear performance standards for rewarding teachers in schools". On the other hand, 40(10%) respondents were Undecided while 86(22%) agreed and 30(10%) respondents Strongly Agreed with the statement. The data is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Timely rewarding with clear performance standards

Level of Agreeing	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	30	8
Agree	86	22
Undecided	40	10
Disagree	121	30
Strongly Disagree	120	30
Total	**397**	**100**

The summary on the table indicates that recognition and rewards for good performance have a consequence. That is, they motivate high performance among the teachers. The recognition and rewards, therefore, are crucial ingredients in schools because they make teachers increase efforts (anticipatory function) and motivate them to work hard. Discussion and interviews with teachers, heads of schools, and quality assurers it was evident that once teachers are rewarded on time they tend to motivate other teachers to work hard anticipating to be rewarded. According to the interviews, the timely rewarding of teachers who work hard will have spill-over effect on students whose performance will equally improve. Some of the interviewees had the following to say regarding the existence of timely rewarding systems.

> "Rewarding is felt when it is administered promptly after doing something good and it makes the doer feel appreciated and works harder. However, if the reward is given without transparency and clear standards and guidelines, it sends a negative message to other employees and creates anarchy. This has been a tendency in our school where everyone believes that to get rewarded you must be in good relation with the school leadership team, otherwise you won't be rewarded regardless whatever good you do." (Interview, Teacher at School D, 2021)

One head of school who believes in rewarding teachers had the following to say:

> "I have a small team of committed teachers in my school who are the role models to others in the way the work to perform their duties from classroom teaching to extra curricula activities and supporting school in field trips. I feel that they need to be motivated in order to remain motivated and motivate others to work hard. However, I cannot do that regularly because of bureaucracy – I have to ask for approval to spend the money which takes time. This distorts the entire purpose of rewards, and sometimes teachers might have forgotten the original purpose of the rewards when the rewards are given." (Interview, Head of School C, 2021)

Another head of school shared the following experience.

> "I often see most of my teachers working very hard and attending extra-curricular activities when their allowances and other incentives are given on time. The situation changes and become very relaxing when they have no clue or if they are not informed of any kind of rewards associated with a certain work to be done. Sometimes when the monthly salary is not paid on time we face challenges in attendance and punctuality with certain

teachers. This affects school-plans and the coverage of the schemes of work." (Interview, Head of School A, 2021)

Another teacher mentioned the following.

"I have worked in this school over the past seventeen years with clean record from attendance to performance of my students in national examinations. However, I have never been rewarded even with an appreciation letter but I have witnessed many other teachers who have been rewarded for doing things which I believe are far below what I have done. For this reason, rewarding to me reflects relationship with the school leadership and not performance." (Interview, Teacher at School A, 2021).

Existence of fair opportunity for professional development among teachers

The researcher sought to find whether or not there was equitable distribution of opportunities for teacher professional development and upgrading. The findings indicate that 146(37%) respondents Strongly Disagreed and 140(35%) respondents disagreed with the statement that there is existence of fair opportunity for professional development among teachers. The data also show that 40(10%) respondents were Undecided while 45(11%) respondents Strongly Agreed and 27(11%) respondents Agreed with the statement. Data is summarized in Table underneath.

Fair Opportunity to Professional Development and Upgrading

Level of Agreeing	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agree	27	7
Agree	45	11
Undecided	40	10
Disagree	140	35
Strongly Disagree	146	37
Total	**397**	**100**

The summary from the results indicates that teachers are not aware of the criteria used to be selected to attend professional development training. Many teachers felt that it was under the mandate of the heads of schools and school management to decide who, when, and where to attend the training when opportunities showed up.

One teacher had the following comment on the opportunities for professional development.

"I have worked in this school for the past fifteen years without getting a single opportunity to attend professional development seminar or workshop while other teachers have attended several trainings. I find this very demotivating as I believe that there is no clear policy and fairness in deciding who should attend the training at what time." (Interview, Teacher at School E, 2021)

Another senior teacher from another school said the following.

"I had to use a different route to get an opportunity for professional development, that is, in-service training. I contacted my colleagues who influenced in the school management to nominate me. Otherwise, I had tried the same over the past six years in vain. This was my proof that without influence, teachers in my school cannot get opportunities for professional development." (Interview, Teacher at School B, 2021)

On the same note the head of school E had the following to say.

"In my school, teachers fight for opportunities for professional development every year. However, these opportunities are limited in terms of numbers and budget. In the last academic year, if I had allowance in the budget I could send three members of the school's academic team to attend training on educational counseling, but due to budget constraints, I managed to send only one teacher. The process of selecting one person to represent the school was tough but as the head of school I had to take decision which the other two teachers did not receive very well. This is one example of the situation I face as the head of the school when dealing with a limited budget." (Interview, Head of School E, 2021)

The above findings indicate that the high proportion of teachers, heads of schools and quality assurance officers agree that the presence of clear and transparent rewarding systems in schools would motivate teachers and hence could be one of the factors to improve school academic performance. However, at the moment there is no any clear rewarding system in schools; and this, invariably has negative impact on teacher performance.

These findings are supported by empirical studies from different scholars in the literature. Tomlinson (2000) points out that putting in place performance-oriented culture and salary paid to teachers are decisive factors of motivation. Ahmad and Shezad's (2011) study on the impact of promotion on performance evaluation practices of secondary school teachers revealed that promotion had a strong and positive impact on the

performance of teachers. Shakir (2013) conducted research on the impact of reward on the performance of teachers in the secondary schools and concluded that most of the principals of the schools are not interested in the professional growth of the teachers. This decreases the motivation level among teachers. Teachers are satisfied with the extrinsic rewards such as pay, bonuses, and allowances provided from the organizations. The school principals and the government administrators should look into the area of teacher motivation if they are aiming at improving student and school academic performance.

State of Teacher Motivation in Public Secondary Schools
The second objective sought to find the levels of satisfaction among the head of school and other teachers in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality. The object reads, 'to explore the current state of motivation of the teachers in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality'. Respondents were asked to respond to four questions in the questionnaire. Teachers were asked to rank their satisfaction levels using five-point Likert scales 1-5 where 1 = Highly Dissatisfied, 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Highly satisfied (See Appendix 1). Questionnaires were distributed to a total of 450 respondents and 400(89%) questionnaires were returned. 397 questionnaires were found useful for data analysis.

The data indicate that the majority of respondents 248(62%) were not satisfied, sixty-two 62(16%) respondents were very satisfied, while 87(22%) respondents were generally satisfied with the level of motivation in public secondary schools they were teaching. This scenario is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: State of Teachers motivation

Level of Motivation	Frequency	Percentage
Highly Satisfied	62	16%
Moderately Satisfied	87	22%
Unsatisfied	248	62%
Total	**397**	**100%**

Source: Field Data

Satisfaction in this context means the state of motivation. It then follows that if a respondent indicates she/he is satisfied it automatically means that she or he is motivated to work. According to this analogy, the

majority of the respondents in this study indicate a serious lack of motivation in their work places.

The researcher wanted to know if the state of motivation had some contributions to employee performance. The interview was conducted to a total of 20 respondents. The interviewees were heads of schools and teachers. All interviewees indicated that the level of motivation contributes to their performance at work. The interviewees said that they would be motivated if the process of rewarding employees was well instituted and observed. They also revealed that motivation was not necessarily in terms of money but included creating conducive working environment, appraisal system, recognition for the works well done, and opportunities to take part in decision making bodies.

To gather more information on the level of teacher's motivation, two sub questions were given to each respondent. First, how does salary affect the motivation level of teachers in school? Out of 20 interviewees 16(80%) indicated that level of motivation among teachers is been affected by the amount salary paid, 2(10%) of the interviewees said there was no connection between teacher's salary and their level of motivation while 2(10%) were not very sure if the teacher's level of motivation was the result of the amount of salary paid or not.

Second, does the motivation level of teachers contribute into the way they prepare their lessons?

All 20 respondents agreed that it is one of the expectations that all teachers prepare their lessons before entering the classroom and there is standard lesson plan to be used for by all teachers for daily planning. However, from the responses in this sub question, 18(90%) of the interviewees said that teacher's motivation level affects the way they prepare their lessons while 2(10%) were not sure if there was connection between teachers' motivation and lesson preparation.

Some respondents had more to say during the interviews on the level of teacher's motivation in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality;
One teacher had this to say regarding his level of satisfaction with the paid salary;

> "Besides teaching I do small business to supplement my family needs and
> meet the living costs, so I don't go to school one or two days in a week to

take care of my business and sometimes I look for excuses to leave school early because I don't think teaching work will help me to meet my expectations in life." (Interview, Teacher at School A, 2021)

Another teacher who spoke on the working conditions as one factor to motivate teacherssaid the following.

"I teach mathematics in three different classes every day for eighty minutes. In each class there are more than eighty students. I find myself very exhausted by the end of the day so I don't have time to mark or prepare for the next day lessons. I feel that the school administration has ignored me and do not feel that I deserve any kind of special consideration in terms of incentives. Therefore, I am organizing tuition after school hours to get extra income." (Interview, Teacher at School B, 2021).

Another teacher mentioned that after working so hard she felt unrecognized. In her responses she had this to say regarding her motivation level:

"I have been a teacher for the past ten years now and throughout my time I have been working so hard to see that my students and school achieve the best in education. However, I have realized that no one values my hard work and I feel not valued. I have trained my students to represent school in various competitions and emerge winners but there has been no recognition from my employer. I think it is the high time for me to do only what I am supposed to do and stop torturing myself for no reason." (Interview, Teacher at School C, 2021)

Another teacher had the following to say regarding the working conditions.

"In my school, teachers are sharing office spaces, were forty-seven teachers and in the staffroom, we hardly have twenty tables and thirty-five chairs which are in good working conditions. Teachers don't have permanent working spaces sometimes we are forced to work in classrooms with students. I am a form two and four mathematics teachers, but I don't have a permanent office to keep things or even mark students' assignments. Thus, I am not motivated when I fail to perform my daily duties effectively and see my students' performance decline." (Interview, Teacher at School C, 2021).

Responses from teachers indicate that they are not satisfied and motivated in their profession. The absence of reward systems and poor working conditions which would boost morale to work hard and achieve the set

goals, makes teachers desperate, they lose interest with their work and as a result there is poor performance at work.

Factors causing the existing level of teachers' motivation

Factors for causing the present state of motivation among teachers in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality were collected through 10 questionnaire items. Teachers were asked to rank the factors using a five-point Likert scale - 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree. The aim was to examine to what extent the identified factors caused dissatisfaction among teachers. The items focused on geographical location, teacher accommodation, availability of teaching resources, availability of extra-curricular resources, and relationship among teachers and students. The findings are presented hereunder.

Geographical location and accommodation for Teachers

The researcher wanted to collect views of the respondents about how distance from school and the status of accommodation available for teachers caused dissatisfaction; hence demotivated teachers. Under this item most teachers responded that they lived very far from schools and the conditions of their accommodation were not good. The findings from the questionnaire indicates that 203(51%) of all the respondents strongly disagree with the statement that geographical location of the school and accommodation motivates them to work hard. This was followed by another big number of 105(26%) of the respondents who disagreed. Whereas only 32(8%) and 35(9%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed with the same statement respectively. Table underneath summarizes the findings explained above.

Geographical location and accommodation for Teachers

Level of Agreeing	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	32	8
Agree	35	9
Undecided	22	6
Disagree	105	26
Strongly Disagree	203	51
Total	**397**	**100**

Moreover, using interviews the researcher sought to get more information about distance and accommodation in relation to teacher motivation. Findings from the interview indicate that distance from school is a

problem as teachers live far from schools and use two to three commuter buses from home to reach school. Some heads of schools indicated that some teachers were forced not to come to work occasionally because they lack bus fares. The situation becomes worse during rainy seasons because due to geographical locations most rivers get flooded, roads are not passable so there is breakdown in means of transportation so some teachers cannot reach the schools. In school A one teacher had this to say.

> "I live more than 25 kilometers from school. Coming to school I have to connect two to three commuter buses. It is not that I like living that far, it is because of the affordability. I cannot rent a house near the school because the rent is very high." (Interview, Teacher at School A, 2021)

One head of school added on above findings by indicating how weather interferes with their presence in school. He had this to say:

> "I face lots of absenteeism from teachers and students during rain seasons. Some of teachers reports to work very late due to transport challenges from their homes and at the same time they request to leave early for them to get transport because many roads are flooded and get closed". Last year two of my teachers were involved in the accident while crossing the river with running water luckily they were saved." (Interview, Head of School B, 2021).

Another teacher on the same question stated.

> "I spend three hours on the road while going home. And in the morning, I have to leave my house at 4:30am in order to report at school at 7:30am. Otherwise I will be late. During rainy season I spend more time which affects my concentration and leave me without time to plan or mark my students' exercise books after work." (Interview, Teacher at School C, 2021).

Availability of teaching and extra-curricular resources
Under this item the researcher wanted to collect views on the availability of resources for teaching and extra-curricular activities in schools as one of the motivating factors. The interviewees were asked to respond to the sub question "Teachers get enough teaching resources in their subject areas and extra-curricular activities". The purpose of this sub question was to learn whether or not availability of resources both curricular and extracurricular was a motivating factor to teachers. Findings from this item indicate that 111(28%) respondents Strongly Disagreed with the statement that teachers get enough resources for teaching and extra-

curricular activities. On the other has 107(27%) respondents Strongly Agreed that teachers get enough teaching resources and extra curriculum activities. Data for this item is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Availability of teaching and extra-curricular resources

Level of agreeing	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	107	27
Agree	85	21
Undecided	23	6
Disagree	71	18
Strongly Disagree	111	28
Total	**397**	**100**

Teachers who were involved in responding this item were those teaching sports and non-sports subjects. Their responses show disappointment that they had no adequate resources to perform their duties effectively. In one school, a sports teacher said they had no proper pitches for sports except football. And even the existing football pitch did not meet the standards. In another school, one sports teacher said that they had been asking for sports resources for the past three years but received none. The teacher said the following:

> "Whenever we ask for sports equipment for proper training of our students in different sports, the head master's response has been 'there is no enough money and the school main focus in the budget is towards equipping the academic departments with academic resources.' He keeps on saying the budget for sports department will be met next year. Sports are not the priority." (Interview, Teacher at School B, 2021)

One head of school had the following to say on the availability of teaching resources.

> "For the last two years the number of students enrolled in my school has been increasing by 40 and 60 respectively while there have been no corresponding efforts to increase teaching resources to meet the demands in classrooms. As a result, there is a great shortage of resources ranging from the library books to science laboratories equipment and sports gears." (Interview, Head of School F, 2021)

Science teachers in many schools complained about lack of required equipment to conduct demonstrations and practical sessions in science subjects. Most of these teachers indicated that they were getting

disappointed because resources like guide books for practical and testing chemicals were not supplied as per the needs. The head of science department and a physics teacher in one school had the following to say on availability of resources to conduct practicals for science subjects.

> "Our students are not doing electricity practical sessions for the past two years due to the lack of equipments in the physics lab. In some occasions we have been borrowing few types of equipment which are used for demonstrations due to the class size. This affects learning and discourages them from taking science subjects in general." (Interview, Teacher at School C, 2021)

Interpersonal relationship among teachers and school administration
The item on the relationship between staff members themselves and school administration sought to find out whether or not the relationship between the members of staff and heads of school was a motivating factor. The success of any school depends much on the team work and collaboration between teachers and the administration in such a manner that good relationship and collaboration among teachers and administration bring about effective teaching and learning.

The findings indicate that 101(25%) respondents Strongly Disagreed and 96(24%) respondents disagreed with the statement that there is a positive interpersonal relationship among teachers and the heads of school. At the same time 43(11%) of respondents were undecided and the rest 88(22%) and 69(18%) agree and strongly disagree with the statement respectively.

Table 4: Interpersonal relationship among teachers and school administration

Level of Agreeing	Frequency	Percentages
Strongly Agree	69	18
Agree	88	22
Undecided	43	11
Disagree	96	24
Strongly Disagree	101	25
Total	**397**	**100**

From the summary most teachers agreed that there is a good relationship among the teachers themselves. However, the relationship between the teachers and the school administration and quality assurer office is not good. The main reason behind poor relationship between teachers and the heads of schools was that teachers had problems with promotions,

performance requirements from heads of schools and quality assurers, and the high teacher-students ratio amidst limited teaching resources. One teacher said the following during interview.

> "I feel that the school head and quality assurer officers don't have hearts or blood flowing in their bodies. I was assigned to teach Geography from one to three; each class had four streams having 60 to 70 students. Literally, I was teaching approximately 800 students. Given the circumstances, I failed to mark all the assignments I gave students as required by the head of school. Surprisingly, instead of finding some assistance to me, the head of school issued me a strong warning letter without considering the situation at hand." (Interview, Teacher at School D, 2021)

In a nutshell, the findings in this section reveal that most teachers face similar challenges with regards to their work leading to dissatisfaction. Issues such as travelling long distances to and from work, geographical location of schools affected by weather (e.g. during the rainy season), and poor relationship among teachers and between teachers and school administrations were common factors which militate against motivation. The observation that one school head and the quality assurers conspired against one teacher is worth noting since it affects motivation.

The findings in this section concur with other scholars like Bennell and Mukyanuzi (2005) who found that 'unattractive' location of schools is a factor affecting student performance in secondary schools. Another study by James at al. (2006) in Nigeria revealed that government schools had large class sizes, inadequate infrastructure and teaching-learning materials all leading to dissatisfaction to teachers. Finding are also consistent with Lewis (1995) who found that the work and living environments for many teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa are poor and tend to lower self-esteem and demotivate teachers.

RECOMMENDATIONS
This study was carried out in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality to determine the role of reward systems on teachers' motivation. The researcher makes the following recommendations to Ilala Municipality and other decision-making organs in the government of United Republic of Tanzania.

There is a need for immediate action to work on addressing issue of

teachers' motivation in the public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality. There should be clear guidelines to recognize and reward teachers who perform exceptionally well in their areas of teaching or responsibilities. Teacher should be paid reasonable salaries comparable to other professions with same qualifications and responsibilities. Teachers should be provided with good working environment including technology and other resources necessary for ensuring proper teaching. Teachers should be thoroughly trained in colleges of education and universities to prepare them to perform their work effectively. Head of schools should arrange for regular in-house training sessions for teachers in order to improve their job performance. There should be regular opportunities for professional development programmes for teachers. Heads of schools should device clear guidelines to ensure that teachers attend such programmes in turn.

RECOMMENDATIONS
This study was carried out in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality only. It is suggested to broaden the research to investigate the same in other Municipalities in Dar es Salaam City; and probably draw other regional authorities in Tanzania. Moreover, the study focused only on rewards and motivation, and they were liked to performance of employees and students. Future study should also focus on factors behind performance; that is issues of leadership behaviours and employee's wellbeing. Particularly, to cover issues of workload, stress and stress management and mental health towards employees' performance.

CONCLUSION
This study has investigated the role of reward system on teacher motivation in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality. Respondents interviewed and those who filled out questionnaires reveals that low salary which teachers receive for their work, poor working environment, lack of clear rewarding systems, unavailability of houses, distance from school to their homes; are among other factors, adversely affect their motivation to work hence affect their performance. Other factors which were mentioned to mitigate teacher motivation to work include imbalances in allocating opportunities for professional development (short courses, seminars, and workshops), inadequate resources to teach and lack of office spaces. The findings of this study may help alleviate the issues identified in order to revamp the ailing situation regarding the motivation of teachers in public secondary schools in Ilala Municipality.

The study has indicated that the findings are not isolated cases but, by and large, concur with other epistemological studies carried out elsewhere.

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Perceptions of Education Stakeholders on Use of Code-Switching in English Foreign Language Classrooms in Primary Schools in Tanzania

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ABSTRACT
Code switching is used as a strategy for teaching of English foreign language in Tanzania public primary school contexts. It is however not officially recognised as one of the strategies for teaching and learning the English subject. Little attention has been given to the use of code switching for teaching and learning English as a foreign language in relation to how it minimises the opportunity to use the target language. The paper is informed by various perspectives on use of code switching in the language teaching and learning classroom. In particular, the paper is pegged on the view that in the foreign language classroom exposure and use of the target language is prime and should be maximised. This paper presents findings from a study that investigated the use of code switching in English language teaching and learning process where a qualitative approach was used. The findings of the study showed code switching negatively affects language proficiency of learners, as it lowers students' ability to master English language, hinders language learning and it contributes to challenges students face during exams. Code switching impedes English language learning and should be avoided so as to develop a tendency for practicing speaking English language during English sessions. It is recommended to persistently teach English through English in the foreign language context to maximise use and the linguistic space for effective learning of the language.

Keywords: Code switching, Foreign Language, Language Teaching and Communicative Competence

INTRODUCTION

The term "code-switching" (CS) is used to describe a variety of language mixing and alternation events, whether they occur throughout a single conversation turn, or sentence utterance (Milroy and Gordon, 2003). Code-switching in the classroom is used to serve linguistic functions and ensure that students understand instructions and content in multiple language learning contexts (Lee, 2016). Code-switching is a common practice in any multilingual society. Multilingualism is the "co-existence of several languages within a society" (Okal, 2014, p. 223). Those proficient in more than one language employ a full range of linguistic skills rather than focusing on just one language (Keller, 2020).

Code-switching is a key research subject in the area of English Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. There are various contradicting perspectives on the use of code-switching. According to Mochacha and Lwangale (2020), it helps learners accomplish a range of purposes, such as improving strategies and techniques to make tasks more understandable. Similarly, Willis (2021) believes that using one's language has a positive and important effect on improving the target language. Literature shows that code-switching in English and Kiswahili is used for teaching and learning in Tanzania mainland instead of English medium of instruction at the secondary level of education in Tanzania (Brock-Utne 2007, Vuzo, 2012, Shartiely 2016). Code switching is used as a pedagogical tool for providing clarification, repetition, and summarizing that facilitate learning where a foreign language is used for teaching and learning.

Furthermore, Lee (2016) views Code switching as where multiple languages are used in the learning process to serve linguistic functions and ensure that students understand instructions and content. When teaching and learning a new language, Moghadam, Samad & Shahraki (2012) demonstrated that the majority of teachers and students code switch in the native language as they pick up new vocabulary in the second language. Likewise, Meutia (2021) highlights that code-switching is a natural phenomenon in EFL classrooms and is used for explaining grammar, managing the class, facilitating comprehension, translating unknown words, clarifying key teaching points, giving instructions, and displaying effective expressions. Ustunel (2016) views Code switching as a natural and important aspect of language teaching and learning, but some teachers and researchers view it as a deficit. It is therefore debatable whether CS enhances or impedes the process of learning a foreign

language. A debate that has existed since the teaching of a foreign language began (Puspawati, 2018).

Besides Nurhamidah et al. (2018) states that code-switching in the EFL classroom is beneficial because it allows teachers to easily transfer content to students, allowing them to interact in the classroom. Such researchers view CS as a valuable linguistic tool (Baker, 2001; Muthusamy et al. 2020; Younas et al. 2020). Modupeola (2013) asserts that CS is seen to be a useful tool in helping English language teaching and learning process, especially at the foundation level (primary level). Shinga and Pillay (2021) argue that in the teaching and learning of a second language, the usage of the learners' native tongue may be essential. Bhatti, Shamsudin, & Said (2018) report that code switching can be used as a teaching approach in order to improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning in English classrooms. Some reports show that CS enhances communication and promotes students' learning (Muthiasari, Lio &Tambunan, 2017; Puspawati, 2018). Nurhamidah (2018) cautions that the use of code switching should be utilised wisely by teachers regarding to its pros and cons emerging from scholars. The fair proportions of code-switching use will give higher chance of learning achievement in EFL classroom. In sum language instructors who favour use of CS believe it is a valuable and effective tool that fosters beginner-level learning (Al Tale & Al Qahtani, 2022). These researchers generally, agree that CS in language teaching enables the efficient content transmission from a teacher to the students. Translanguaging, multilingual teaching, and plurilingual education e.g. (Piccardo, 2013) are instructional approaches developed from such perspectives. These are however not the focus of this paper.

A contrary perspective is that using code-switching undermines the goal of language teaching, harms students' competency, and indicates laziness during the teaching and learning process (Brown, 2005). It is used by teachers to compensate for their lack of ability in the TL by using their first language (L1) to keep a flow during communication to overcome gaps and flaws in conversations. Teachers' code-switching in the classrooms should be resisted to keep students from becoming reliant on the first language (L1) (Altun, 2019). Dendup (2020) argues that code-switching mostly occurs when one is at the loss of words and it questions one's fluency. Moreover, when code-mixing is so extreme or frequent it can lead to an origin and evolution of a new language known as "Media

Lingua halfway language" which is spoken as the usual everyday language. Therefore, employing code-switching can make the students feel more confident and comfortable during the teaching and learning process but actually, it indicates that their English vocabulary is limited (Kumar et al., 2021). Such scholars argue that code-switching should be prohibited in language classrooms because it substantially impedes language learning (Üstünel, 2016). Code switching limits students practice in speaking English language and therefore does not lead to language competence (Johanes, 2017). It slows down students' English language acquisition (Eliakimu, 2015). Rugemalira (2005, p. 77) argues that CS in the classroom "amounts to translation of what has been said in the target language undermines any motivation for learning the target language as the learners will learn to tune out and wait for the translation in the first language." Whereas Baker (2001, p. 100) believes that CS expresses "a deficit, or a lack of mastery of both languages." Hence code-switching prevents language students from acquiring more useful target language skills (Wijaya, 2020). Code-switching is deemed to negatively influence learners.

Moreover, Mujiono et. al. (2013) argue that code-switching is considered by many to be neither an asset nor a valuable addition as code-switching by individual students is evidence that they are not thinking much in the target language. Regarding the role of code-switching in second or foreign language learning classes, Üstünel (2016) argues that researchers have tended to fall into one of the three camps: firstly, the first language should play an unrestricted and free role; secondly, the first language can be a useful tool, but its role in second language acquisition should be outlined; and thirdly, since it may hinder learning, the first language should not be used in second language classes. Al Tale' & Al Qahtani (2022) emphasize that whether or not the student's native language should be used to teach a foreign language has been controversial for several years.

The perspective informing this study is the communicative approach which emphasizes on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language (TL) (Nunan 1991). In this view failure to use a familiar language to learn a target language in a constructive way only inhibits learning. Hence instead visual aids, appropriate body language and modelling speech according to learners' level of language development should help teach the foreign language (Ustunel, 2016). This perspective

is also informed by the idea of the maximum exposure to the TL. Krashen (1982) holds that the TL should be used most in the classroom in the EFL context as it is the only place where the learners are exposed to the TL. Hence Code-switching limits, the classroom learning time that may not fully be optimised by teachers and learners to learn as much as they possibly can (Jingxia, 2010). Code-switching should be avoided to prevent negative transfer and guarantee the maxims of comprehensible input in addition to meaning negotiation (Hussein, Saed & Haider, 2020). This ensures optimal EFL learning of the foreign/second language by offering more exposure to the target language (Hall & Cook, 2012). Therefore, teachers should make maximum use of the target language in foreign language classrooms (Zainil & Arsyad 2021). Besides Littlewood and Yu (2011) acknowledge that much use of the target language in the EFL classroom correlates significantly with higher students' language output. Students need to have comprehensible input as well as opportunity and encouragement to produce output in the target language. Their linguistic abilities should be stretched to the fullest (Ustunel, 2016).

Most of the studies conducted in Tanzania on use of code switching focused on teaching and learning at the secondary school level and above where English language is used as a medium of instruction for teaching all subjects except language specific subjects (e.g. Kadeghe, 2006; Vuzo, 2012; Eliakimu, 2015; Johanes, 2017). Cook (2008) highlights that language teaching classrooms are different from other classrooms because language is not just about the medium of instruction but also about the content whose purpose in one sense is to provide optimal samples of language for the learner to profit from – the best 'input' to the process of language learning. The focus in a foreign language context is the ability to use the language.

Language Teaching and Learning Context in Tanzania
Tanzania is a multilingual country in the sense that its people speak several languages. Tibategeza (2010) asserts that the country has 150 ethnic languages spoken within its boundaries. Kiswahili is a national language and it is used as a first or second language by most Tanzanians (MoEVT, 2014). The English language is used as a second or third (foreign) language by some Tanzanians. Kiswahili and English languages are the official languages in Tanzania (Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT), 2014). Although English is referred to as a second language in Tanzania, its usage is relatively restricted, making it

more of a foreign language (Sane & Sebonde, 2014). English language is mostly used in school contexts.

In the education sector of Tanzania, mainly English and Kiswahili languages are used. The languages are learnt as compulsory subjects at primary and secondary level education. English Language Subject teaching begins in Standard III in public schools (TIE 2015). English language syllabus shows that English subject has a maximum of 7 periods per week. Language teaching is where grammar, vocabulary, and the written and oral forms of a language constitute a specific curriculum for the acquisition of a language other than the mother tongue (Vuzo, 2019). If correctly done, communicative competence is promoted.

There are weaknesses in language competencies which are largely attributed to poor teaching and learning infrastructure and poor teaching methods and minimal use of appropriate use of language in ordinary surroundings. This has led to lack of ability to use the English language for both teachers and students at the different levels of education (MoEVT 2014, p. 13). Moreover, results from NECTA (2021, 2022) show that the performance of students in English is poor. A majority of the students fail hence the need to look into the teaching of the subject in regard to the extent to which code-switching contributes to this situation.

This paper focuses on the use of code-switching in teaching English foreign language which is the only subject at the primary level not taught in Kiswahili medium of instruction. The basic premise is using code-switching does not provide an optimal sample and best input in the English foreign language classroom which is barely the main encounter and source of language available for learners. Exposure to and opportunities for target language interaction in the case of a foreign language are restricted to the classroom and it is not spoken in the society (Moeller & Catalano 2015). Additionally, Holmarsdottir (2004) asserts that in foreign language learning the teacher plays a major role with little or no peer learning. The teacher provides exposure to the language and opportunities for learning through classroom activities. Teachers' use of target language (TL) is the prime source of comprehensible input but it also facilitates meaningful interaction during the instructional process determining the success (or otherwise) of classroom L2 learning (Kim & Elder, 2008). In order to enhance English foreign language learning the target language should be used consistently in the teaching and learning

context. The range of language experiences that children get in their foreign language lessons is likely to influence how the new language develops. Therefore, this paper provides some insight in this respect in regard to English foreign language teaching in primary schools in Tanzania from grades III–VII.

English Language Teaching in Public Primary Schools in Tanzania
In Tanzania, primary-level English language teaching and learning are aimed at preparing students to accomplish activities involving the use of all four language skills (MoEST, 2016). Additionally, according to MoEST (2016), the process will produce a student who is able to communicate by using both written and oral English. English is a crucial subject to teach and acquire in primary school because: it is used in Tanzania alongside Kiswahili as an official language. It is also the most common business language and it provides access to learning about other cultures and expanding one's knowledge. The current objectives of teaching and learning English language in primary school in Tanzania are:

    a) To enable the pupils to express themselves appropriately in a given situation;
    b) To develop the pupils' basic skills in listening (lip reading, for the deaf) speaking, reading and writing (writing into Braille for the blind) through English language;
    c) To acquire and use vocabulary through the four language skills;
    d) To enable pupils to acquire and apply correct English grammar; and
    e) To provide the pupils with a sound base for higher education and further personal advancement through English language use (MoEST, 2016, p. viii).

In order to meet the above stated objectives, the teaching and learning of English language is supposed to be efficient and accurate.

In order to improve the teaching and learning of English language in Tanzania, and so as to help students communicate effectively with English speakers both inside and outside of the country the government released the communicative competence-based English curriculum in 2005 (Sane & Sebonde, 2014). One of the tenets of competence-based language teaching according to Richards and Rodgers (2014) is the emphasis on the use of the target language by correctly assembling

language components so as to construct communicative competence of the learners when teaching and learning a language. John, Vuzo & Mkumbo (2020) show that there are some challenges related to implementing competence-based language teaching (CBLT) such as inadequate time allocated for teaching English subject through Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach; inadequate teaching and learning facilities such as CDs, Videos, textbooks for authentic communication; crowded classes and poor teaching and learning environments.

Despite the government's initiative to improve English language teaching and learning process by introducing competence-based syllabus, where it is expected that teachers will use the target language (English) for communication, there is unofficial use of Kiswahili in teaching and learning of English contrary to what is expected. The use of code switching as a learning strategy is a common phenomenon in Tanzania in nearly all levels of education in all subjects including English (Mtallo, 2015). Although code-switching practice is common, neither the education policy (MoEVT, 2014) nor the current CBLT approach (Richards and Rodgers, 2014) adopted in Tanzania support entirely the use of code-switching when teaching and learning a language. The aim of the study infoming the paper was to establish the negative factors associated with code switching, especially in facilitating the learning of English as a foreign language. This paper was therefore guided by the following research questions:
- How do education stakeholders perceive the use of Code switching in the English language teaching and learning process?
- What are the implications of using Code switching in the English language teaching and learning process?

METHODOLOGY
A study that explored stakeholders' perceptions on the use of Code switching between English and Kiswahili languages was conducted in Bagamoyo Tanzania where Kiswahili is a predominant language. Four schools (coded as School A - D) were purposively chosen from Bagamoyo town. The study used a qualitative approach specifically case study design. Qualitative research "seeks to understand and interpret human and social behaviour as it is lived by participants naturally in a particular social setting" (Ary et. al. 2014, p. 447). This approach allowed

the researchers to listen to the participants about their perspectives and interpretations on the use of CS in English language teaching and learning. The use of case study design in this study was useful in examining a group of subjects selected from public primary schools in Bagamoyo district. Guided by the perspective of Creswell (2014), the naturally occurring data in the participants' setting were collected through face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations and thematically analysed by inductively building general themes and making interpretations of the meaning of the data. The researchers applied three general sets of aims in thematic analysis as presented by Gibson & Brown (2009) which were the examination of commonalities, the examination of differences and the examination of relationships.

The study had a sample of 20 participants: 4 Ward Educational Officers, 4 heads of English language departments, and 12 English language teachers who were interviewed. Codes were used to represent these participants. WEOs are coded as "WEO 1 – 4". Teachers were coded as "T" (thus T 1 – 3) in each school.

Table 1: Composition of sample

S/N	Categories of Participants	Number of Respondents
1	Ward Educational Officers (WEOs)	4
2	Head of English Departments (HoDs)	4
3	English language teachers	12
	TOTAL	**20**

Four WEOs were purposively selected in this study because they are the ones responsible for ensuring teaching and learning is effectively done in the respective ward localities. Purposive sampling was used to choose four heads of English language departments from four schools used in the study. In selecting teachers, purposive random sampling was used. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), purposeful random sampling adds credibility to a purposeful selected sample. The researchers randomly selected three English language teachers in each of the four schools. Since English language teachers were more than three teachers who were required per school, the researchers prepared small papers with numbers as per the total number of teachers available. Teachers who got paper number one, two and three were included in the study.

Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with four WEOs, four heads of English language departments and twelve English language teachers. In addition, classroom observations were done with four teachers -one teacher in each of the four schools used in the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
The patterns of Code Switching in the Classroom
The findings from classroom observations showed how Code switching was manifested in English language teaching and learning process in public primary schools. The following is a sample excerpt of the classroom observations.

Excerpt 1 - Classroom observation from School A
[In School "A" the researchers observed classroom teaching and learning process. The excerpt below is a lesson about countable and non-countable nouns].

Key: T = Teacher; S = Student; SS = Students; ( ) = Translated text; [ ] = Observer's comments; 1, 2, 3, … = The exchanges of teacher and students have been assigned continuous numbers.

1. T: Good morning class
2. SS: Good morning Madam
3. T: How are you?
4. SS: We are fine thanking you Madam. How are you too?
5. T: I'm fine, sit down!
6. SS: Thank you Madam.
7. T: [Pointing at one student] Wewe, futa ubao! *(You, clean the blackboard)*
8. T: Today, we continue with our lesson about countable and uncountable nouns
9. T: Who can mention countable nouns?
10. SS: [Silent]
11. T: I said mention countable nouns!
12. SS: [Silent]
13. T: Majina yanayohesabika ni yapi? (*What are countable nouns?*)
14. SS: [*Randomly*] mangoes, trees, houses [*Many responses continued*]
15. T: Ok! Ok! Why do we use 'many' in pencils?

16. S: Kwa sababu penseli zinahesabika (*Because pencils are countable*)
17. T: Sawa zinahesaika: answer in English.
  (*ok it is countable*)
18. S: [Silent]
19. T: Anyway! Hivi days ni nini kwa Kiswahili? (*What is 'days' in Kiswahili?*)
20. SS: Siku (*days*)
21. T: Hivyo we can count days, sivyo? (*So we can count days, isn't?*)
22. SS: Ndiyo (*yes*)
23. T: Can you count milk?
24. SS: [Silent]
25. T: Mnaweza kuhesabu maziwa? (*Can you count milk?*)
26. SS: Hapana (*No*)
27. T: So, this is uncountable thing, ok!
28. SS: Yes
29. T: I want reason: kwanini tunatumia 'any' na sio 'some' kwenye mangoes? (*Why do we use 'any' and not 'some' in mangoes?*)
30. S: Because mango is countable.
31. T: Mwenzenu anasema kwa sababu embe linahesabika, je ni kweli?
  (Your fellow has said because mango is countable, is itcorrect?)
32. SS: Ndio *(Yes)*
33. T: Kumbukeni nimewaambia nini kuhusu 'any' na 'some'.
  (*Remember what I have told you about any and some*)
34. T: Why do we use 'some' sugar?
35. T: Kwanini tunatumia some? (*Why do we use some?*)
36. S: Kwa sababu sukari haihesabiki (*Because sugar is not countable*).
37. T: Now I give you some questions and every one of you should do, sawa? *(ok?)*
38. SS: Sawa *(Ok)*
39. T: [T wrote the questions on the blackboard and started passing by to mark the assignment from the students and thereafter winded up the lesson].

Basing on classroom observations data from the four schools, two basic patterns of use of Code switching in English classrooms have been identified through classroom observations which are (a) Code switching in a translation form and (b) Code switching for checking vocabulary equivalents from English to Kiswahili. Generally, the excerpts show use of utterances of words, sentences and repeated drills practised by the class often as discrete items, that bear little or no resemblance to possible sequences in normal discourse. There is also more use of the familiar language compared to the target language.

Perceptions of Code Switching as an English Language Teaching Strategy

WEOs in this study concurred that Code switching between English and Kiswahili is a manifestation of teacher's incompetency in English language and is a bad practice. Generally, there was no formula in relation to the use of Kiswahili and English. Some teachers used more Kiswahili than English while others used more English while code switching. This lack of consistency affects the kind of language input. Findings further showed that teachers code switch because students fail to understand in English. This was asserted by WEO 1:

> Code switching is not good. The problem is the base; all subjects are taught in Kiswahili except English language subject only that has few periods per week.

Likewise, WEO 2 stated that:

> Code switching use in the classroom represents the incompetence of the teachers in English language. Teachers should use English language all the time when teaching English subject. Students' failure to understand something should not be an excuse for the teacher to code switch.

All 4 heads of English language departments (HoDs) stated that the use of Code switching between English and Kiswahili in English language teaching and learning process is not a good practice. The HoD of School A stated the following:

> I do not like to use code switching because if you want to put a strong base of English to the students, it is better to use English only. When you code switch the student may not put much emphasis on English knowing that the teacher will explain in Kiswahili.

The HoDs put much emphasis on the use of English language when learning English language. This is clearly shown by the following quotation:

> I myself have negative perceptions towards the use of code switching. Code switching is not a good thing. It is better for an English language teacher to use simple English language rather than code switching in Kiswahili. (HoD School B)

At least 10 of the teachers interviewed perceived negatively the use of code switching in English language teaching and learning process. Some of their responses were as follows:

> As a teacher I do not like to use code switching because if you want to have a strong base of English to the students, it is better to use English only rather than code switching. (T 2 School A)

> Teaching English by using Kiswahili is not good. It is just because of the environment i.e. the use of mother tongue interferes the smooth process of learning English. This situation of code switching is just due to lack of enough teaching and learning facilities like teaching aids. (T 1 School C)

> It is not good but we have to start building a base from the beginning to avoid using code switching. This will be done when we develop different programmes which will encourage students to use English like 'English speaking day' (T 3 School D)

Although the stakeholders disliked the practice, teachers' responses showed that they use it to help learners understand due to lack of enough teaching and learning facilities like teaching aids. Despite the unfavourable general view of code switching, the findings show that English language teachers employ it for a variety of purposes; the major being fostering students' understanding as it has also been reported by earlier studies (Modupeola, 2013; Muthiasari, Lio &Tambunan, 2017; Puspawati, 2018). This illustrates that teachers and their administrators dislike CS practice; however, they are forced by classroom circumstances to use it despite their understanding of the fact that the use of CS is not formally accepted by neither the policy (MoEVT, 2014) nor current communicative language teaching approaches (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Code Switching in English Language Teaching and Learning Process
The main reasons noted for code switching were the socializing role of the teacher, the need to translate, elaborate by repetition and both

teachers' and students' English language incompetence and insecurity. Generally, the findings came up with three major ways on how CS affects English language teaching and learning process: (1) Code switching lowers students' ability to master English language; (2) Code switching hinders language learning and (3) Code switching brings problems to students during examinations' time.

Participants asserted that code switching has negative outcomes on students' English language proficiency as it does not promote use of English language and in so doing students do not get much opportunity to attain the expected level of English proficiency which contributes to some not being able to answer examination questions in English. For instance, WEO 1 asserted that:

> Code switching impedes the process of teaching and learning English because it fails to prepare a child for his/her future i.e. secondary level where English is almost everything. In a greater percent it lowers student's ability towards mastery of English language.

The findings show that in code switching usually Kiswahili is the matrix language (main language) and English the embedded code (the language that holds the lesser role), in activities and tasks in lessons to fill in this gap in English language proficiency that is lacking. Hence there is minimal use of English language that is the target language. Code switching where there are low levels of English language proficiency experienced by most teachers as well as students accentuates negative aspects associated with code mixing. It is therefore an unsystematic result of not knowing one of the languages involved very well and is a form of linguistic decay (Appel & Muysken 1995). Code switching hinders successful learning of English foreign language as it reduces exposure to the language that relies heavily on the classroom context to learn it, learners in this context rely on code switching and do not focus on language accuracy but on commitment of errors without noticing (Jingxia, 2010). In the long run learners fail to learn the target language by limiting communication skills in the target language. This implies that communicative competence {knowing how to use language for different purposes and functions, knowing how to vary communication according to setting and participants (formal/ information; written/spoken); knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g narratives, reports, interviews, conversations) and knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's own language

knowledge through use of different communication strategies} in other words (grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and actional competence) (Hymes, 1971) are not being attained in many public schools (Sane & Sebonde, 2014).

The influence of Code Switching on Language Learning

The use of code switching prevents students from being creative and working hard to learn English language. One teacher stated:

> The use of code switching impedes English language teaching and learning process and is not allowed because it makes students to relax and just wait for the teacher's translation. (T 2, SCH C)

Code switching makes students lazy in trying hard to understand meanings derived from their classroom teaching and learning process because they know the teacher will code switch and explain in Kiswahili language (See excerpt 1 lines 19-36). A student therefore relaxes and depends on the teacher's elaborations in Kiswahili and does not learn English language effectively. This verifies findings from other studies that CS impedes learning. See excerpt 1 lines 9-14 where students are silent and only respond after elaborations have been provided. Rugemalira (2005) demonstrates that using too much CS deters students from becoming motivated to study the target language since they train themselves to tune out and wait for the elaborations to be given in the familiar language. Hence code-switching should be avoided and the target language should be used consistently instead. In other words, the linguistic space to use the language should be optimised to promote attainment of language competence and proficiency. This indicates that the intended and target language competencies stated by TIE (2015) are therefore not attained as planned.

Implications of Code Switching on Assessment

The findings revealed that students who learn English language through code switching between English and Kiswahili face difficulties when it comes to examination writing. One of the HoDs asserted:

> Code switching does not help the child, especially in writing assignments and examinations. You give information in Kiswahili but the examination is done in English. In this case, code switching helps to understand but at the time of writing it does not help. (HoD, School A)

The problem is due to the logic that students rely much on Kiswahili information and hence become unable to conceptualise concepts in the target language which is English. It was further revealed that CS may bring problems during assignments and examinations which are done in English only. Code switching in this regard lowers students' ability to master English language, hinders language learning and brings problems to students during examinations' time. Students who are taught through CS fail to be self-independent in answering questions in English as required. The rationale behind this claim is that while CS is informally applied between English and Kiswahili when teaching and learning English, only English is necessary when completing assignments and in examinations. Basically, although using CS seems imperative to enable understanding of English but it exacerbates the situation of failing to learn to use the target language as it does not encourage its use.

Generally, findings from previous studies show that code switching in Tanzanian classrooms is done in a haphazard manner, which may be pedagogically counter-productive (Rubagumya 2003, Vuzo 2012). This contributes to students and teachers being inclined to build on the language they are most competent in with little input going to the other language, as exemplified in this study. The chance to learn English in this way is restricted and limited by code switching. The students and teachers therefore remain poor in English. Instead the teaching of English should be rooted directly on the realities of the students' environment.

In relation to Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis students are supposed to be immersed in a comprehensible language environment. The use of code switching denies students with enough target language practice and hinders the development of language proficiency. This verifies what Temesgen and Hailu (2022) assert that CS should be avoided in environments where learning a second or foreign language is taking place since it limits students' access to L2 input.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Although code switching pedagogy may be effective when planned and applied properly, maximizing L2 input remains a primary goal of EFL classrooms. The communicative approach informing the paper emphasizes that CS has negative implications towards English language teaching and learning process and therefore it should be avoided, minimised and reduced to promote the tendency for practicing English

language skills during English sessions. English foreign language should be taught through English in order to optimise the use of the target language in the teaching and learning classroom. Language is a central aspect for communication and hence language teaching should be promoted to acquire requisite skills necessary for the future of students and for sustainable language education needed for education and development. Communicating effectively is key for the 21st century. Hence English foreign language teachers should focus on providing students with correct and appropriate exposure to the English foreign language. Despite other challenges highlighted of implementing competence based English language teaching students should be provided with more opportunity and time for learning the English foreign language in the classroom so as to facilitate attainment of the required language competencies.

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Impact of COVID-19 on Inclusive Education in Higher Learning Institutions in Rwanda

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ABSTRACT
This study analysed the impact of COVID – 19 pandemics on the inclusive learning process of students in the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. A quantitative research design was adopted. Primary data was collected from 1170 students in 30 learning institutions in Rwanda using a closed ended questionnaire. Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical analytical tools. The results indicated covid -19 has impacted the inclusive learning process of students in the higher learning institutions in different ways. Students in rural areas were more affected due to limited access to internet connections, lack of internet data and limited access to electricity all of which were caused by limited infrastructure in the online learning. Students from poor families regardless of their locations suffered more due to limited access to electricity and internet connections in their homes. The study contributed to the existing knowledge in two ways, Firstly, it established the impact of covid–19 pandemic on the inclusive learning process in higher learning institutions. Secondly, it established the learning inequality based on location and social economic status.

Keywords: *Covid–19, Learning, Education institutions, inclusive learning, online learning, Students*

INTRODUCTION

Inclusive education is one of the key pillars that African leaders need to concentrate on if they are to achieve the sustainable growth and development. Inclusive education is the key that opens the door to the social and economic development worldwide and Rwanda in particular. Various scholars have indicated the role inclusive education in socio-economic development (Nikos B. and Stefania, 2013, Hanushek, 2016 and Hanushek, 2013). Hanushek (2013), for example, points out that improving schooling to allow inclusive learning is a fore front of many

countries in the world because the development of cognitive skills on the majority of population forms the foundation for social and economic development in both the developed and developing countries. Both the neoclassical and endogenous economists converge at one point that inclusive education forms the foundation for human capital which is a core variable in the economic growth. Education inequality continues to be a major challenge in many developing countries where students in rural areas are more marginalised. Zhang et al. (2015) posits that students in the rural area perform lower than students in the urban areas. Human capital is very important factor in the journey of economic growth.

The coronavirus pandemic which started in China in December 2019 has not only created challenges on the health system, but it has had a very big impact on the education systems across the globe (Owusu *et al.* 2020, Daniel, 2020; Chan, 2020; Peters *et al.,* 2020 and Karalis, 2020). The measures which were introduced to combat Covid 19 pandemic such as lockdowns, social distancing and quarantine have disrupted the operation of the education institutions (Daniel, 2020, Ognodi*et al.,* 2020, Reimers and Schleicher, 2020). In order to implement the Covid-19 measures, teaching was shifted from the physical to the virtual classrooms and from schools to home (Zhanga*et al.,* 2020). This has not only affected the teaching and learning processes, but as well as the operation of education institutions since many private institutions survive solely on school fees from students (Karalis, 2020). Wargadinata*et al*. (2020) points out that with the covid -19 measures such as social and physical distancing; online learning appears to be a solution in the situations where the normal learning process cannot take place.

Covid – 19 pandemics has had numerous impacts on the learning process of students in the higher learning institutions in the world. Joseph *et al.* (2020) points out that universities were unable to redesign their curriculum to suit the online learning. Aziz and Ojcius (2020) point out that covid -19 led to delay in graduation. Calhoun (2020) points out that students were unable to acquire practical skills due limited virtual laboratories. Wargadinata*et al*. (2020) asserts that the pandemic has affected academic calendar; Aziz and Ojcius (2020) lamented on delay in graduation and Reimers and Schleicher (2020) pointed out that students in their final years were unable to collect data to finalize their research work due to lockdowns. The Covid -19 pandemic affected the assessment process of many of the education institutions as well. The internal

assessment which provides information about the progress of the students has been compromised (Reimers and Schleicher, 2020) because of failure to recognize the ability of the student is dentrimental to the learning process (Piopiunik*et al.* 2020). A study conducted by Aziz and Ojcius (2020) point out that covid -19 led to delay in graduation. Zhanga*et al.* (2020) showed that there was no internal assessment of students during the Covid 19 pandemic.

Following the outbreak of Covid – 19, the teaching and learning process was shifted from the normal classrooms to the virtual classrooms through the use of various technologies. Although use of mobile phones allows learning to take place at any time and in any place as pointed out by Naciri*et al.* (2020), the infrastructure development to support the online learning is still very low in many education institutions (Bao, 2020, Reimer and Schleicher, 2020, Sintama, 2020). Poor networks have greatly affected the online learning process during the covid – 19 pandemics (Owusu and Hanson, 2020, Joseph *et al.,* 2020). Covid- 19 pandemic has created a big challenge to science students' learning process (Sintama, 2020, Abidah*et al.* 2020 and Peters *et al.,* 2020).   The interruption in the learning process was due to lack of virtual lavatories, cadavers, dissection rooms, specimens, skeleton, and lack of practical learning materials as pointed out by (Abidah*et al.*, 2020 and Peters *et al.,* 2020). This has affected mostly science students in their final years. Furthermore, the academic calendar has been disrupted by covid – 19 (Ogunode*et al.,* 2020, Daniel, 2020). Huston et al (2020) asserts that students doing natural science subjects were unable to have access to laboratories due to lack of virtual laboratories in many education institutions. More to that, many students lacked skills to study and practice online Wargadinata*et al.,* 2020; Owusu *et al.* 2020; Drane*et al.,* 2020; Calhoun, 2020 and Caoa et al., 2020) Owusu and Hanson (2020) points out that students were unable to study effectively at home. Owusu *et al.* (2020) and Drane et al (2020) pointed out that online learning has got various challenges which includes limited internet connections, unconducive home environment and failure of parents to assist in the learning process, learning from others through group discussion and limited skills to study online.

Daniel (2020) carried out a study on education and covid -19 pandemic. Data was collected from different education institutions using a questionnaire which was emailed to the respondents. The findings from the survey show that covid -19 has impacted on students in different ways

which included finalists may not complete their education in the normal ways, employment challenges, completion of school curriculum and assessment in the normal ways. Zhanga*et al.* (2020) analysed on suspending classes without stopping learning focusing on China's education emergence management policy in the covid – 19 outbreaks. A qualitative approach was adopted through review of literature. The findings revealed weakness online teaching infrastructure, inexperienced teachers, unequal learning outcomes created by the inexperienced teachers, information gap, complex environment at home, proportion and efficacy of the use of the online teaching resource are still low, and both teachers and students face a problem of teaching and studying online, unclear teaching mode and pedagogy.

Chan (2020) carried out a study on covid – 19 pandemic and global higher education evidence for future research and practice. A qualitative approach was adopted and data was analysed using Nvivo from a literature survey of 123 abstracts. Findings revealed that covid – 19 pandemics have impacted the academic calendar for students. Murphy (2020) analysed covid 19 and the emergency of eLearning, consequences of the securitization of higher education for post pandemic pedagogy. The study adopted a qualitative approach through review of literature. Findings show that securitization theory is an important tool for educators not for observing the phenomenon of emergency of eLearning but also advocates the desecuritisation of the schools after covid – 19. Wang *et al.* (2020) examined risk management of covid – 19 by universities. Covid 19 has had a great impact on social and economic development of china. Chinese universities have played a positive role in controlling the epidemic situation.

Naciri (2020) the study examined the role of mobile learning as a remote teaching strategy to sustain student centered learning. Findings show that use of mobile learning allows learning any time, any place and any time. Covid – 19 pandemics has had a great impact on the education need to change their education curriculum to adopt innovation teaching. The study identified a big challenge on developing the students' technological skills to use e-learning. Doyle (2020) analysed how covid – 19 exacerbated education inequality with evidence from Ireland. The adopted qualitative systematic review of 45 studies modeling the effect of covid on schools. The findings from the survey revealed that covid – 19 pandemics has widened the education inequality.

Owusu and Hanson (2020) examined the impact of covid – 19 pandemics on learning focusing on the Ghanaian students. The study used a descriptive research design. Data was collected using a questionnaire from a population of 214 students from the total institutions. A simple random sampling was used to select the sample. Findings revealed that students were unable to learn effectively from home, online learning is not effective, parents are incapable of assisting their children on how to access the eLearning platform, and don't get time to supervise their children, limited internet access and the technical knowhow.

Abidah*et al.* (2020) analysed the impact of covid – 19 pandemics to the Indonesian education sector and its relation to the philosophy of Merdeka Belajar. The study made a conceptual analysis of various research articles. Findings show that there was a lack of learning resources, digital classes, and virtual laboratories to the learning process during the covid - 19. Aziz and Ojcius (2020) examined the impact of covid -19 on dental educations in the United States of America through review of literature. Findings from surveys show that covid – 19 has impacted the teaching and learning process, graduations were delayed, graduation was moved online and parents were entrusted with their children.

Wargadinata*et al.* (2020) analysed the students' response on learning in the early covid -19 pandemic in Malang Indonesia. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative research design and data was collected from both primary and secondary sources using questionnaire, interview and observation. The questionnaire was distributed using online google form and the interview was conducted online. The study population included 225 students from the higher learning institutions. The findings regaled that use of what's-up group was the easiest to communicate to the students since it does not require much data and it is simple to use. Education institutions adopted different learning models in order to ensure learning continues to take place even during the period of covid - 19 pandemic. These included what's-up groups, e-learning platforms, Zoom, google classrooms, Microsoft teams, WebEx and others as they develop. Huston et al (2020) examined the impact of covid -19 pandemic on the medical students in the United States of America. The study adopted a qualitative approach by reviewing various literatures. Students were sent home and removed from hospital and clinic settings, shifted from live groups to virtual teaching and this affected students' acquisition of practical skills.

Owusu *et al*. (2020) examined the impact of covid -19 on learning in Ghana. The study adopted a descriptive research design. The study population included 214 students from the tertiary institutions. Data was collected using a questionnaire which was designed using a Likert scale. Findings revealed that students are facing a number of challenges which include students are unable to effectively study from home which makes online learning less effective, parents are not capable of assisting the children during the online learning, limited access to internet, and lack of technological knowhow. Drane*et al*. (2020) analysed the impact of online learning on the educational outcomes of vulnerable children in Australia during the Covid -19 Pandemic. The study adopted a qualitative research approach through review of various research articles. Findings revealed that there are still limited skills in the use of technology during the learning process, limited internet coverage and lack of internet data, learning from others through group discussion is also limited digital inclusion as the internet coverage is still very limited as well as excess to the internet data. Emotional wellbeing and anxiety students may face a challenge of emotional that offsite learning that may bring and psychological anxiety which may lead to students to start losing the school connectedness.

Calhoun (2020) studied the impact of covid -19 on medical students' surgical education implementing extreme pandemic response measures in distributed surgical clerkship experience in America. The study adopted a literature review. The findings revealed that covid -19 acquired students to acquire practical skills. Caoa*et al.* (2020) studied the psychological impact of the Covid -19 on the college students in China. The researchers adopted a quantitative research design. Data was collected from primary sources using a questionnaire from 7143 students. Data was analysed using SPSS. A univariate analysis was used to explore the significant associations between the sample characteristics and the anxiety level during the covid – 19 pandemics. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to evaluate the association between the variables. The findings revealed that living with parents had a significant effect on anxiety. The results further indicated that living in urban areas was a protective factor against the anxiety as compared to rural areas. Stability of student's family income and living with parents were also protective factors against anxiety.

Kapasiaa*et al* (2020) carried out a study on the impact of lockdowns on learning status of undergraduate and postgraduate students during the covid -19 pandemics in India. An online survey was conducted using a structured questionnaire link from google form. The study population included 232 students. Findings revealed that students faced various challenges, students from the remote areas and marginalised faced more challenges   Daroedono*et al.* (2020) analysed the impact of COVID – 19 on medical education based on the students' perception and practice of long-distance learning in Indonesia. The study used a cross sectional study design. Primary data was collected using electronic questionnaires and in-depth interviews. The study population included 545 students from medical schools. The findings revealed that covid 19 has affected students in different ways.

Zhang et al. (2015) made a survey on the education inequality between the rural and the urban areas analysing the potential bottleneck for human capital accumulation in China. The survey was made to a population of 18000 household and a random sampling technique was adopted. The study was carried out in both rural and urban areas of China. The findings revealed that family characteristics, there is a significant difference between family characteristics, school quality and student's performance. The major contributors to the rural urban education disparity included the demographic features, physical health measures, parental education levels and household education spending. Zhao (2016) made a survey on the deficient to strength shifting the mind set about education inequality in America through the review of literature. The study found out that the disparity was based on colour. Hanushek. (2013) carried out a study on economic growth in developing countries analysing the role of human capital. The study adopted a quantitative research approach. Secondary data was collected from 21 countries across the globe. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. The findings revealed that cognitive skills play a critical role in ensuring economic development of developing countries.

Whereas literature on the impact of covid – 19 on education sector has been established from different countries by different scholars Zhanga*et al.,* (2020), Radwan and Radwan, (2020), Connorchick*et al*. (2020), Karalis, (2020) Brown *et al.,* (2020) Reimers and Schleicher, (2020), the evidence to support the literature on inclusive education is still very limited. More to that, most studies that have analysed this phenomenon

have used a literature review Connorchick*et al*. (2020), Zhanga*et al.,* (2020), Ozer (2020) Ogunode*et al.* (2020) Peters *et al*. (2020) and Karalis, (2020) to come up with the conclusion on the impact of covid-19 on the education sector

Secondly, previous literature provides little evidence on the inequality created by covid -19 pandemic on the students based on their area of location. It is important to mention covid -19 has created a learning inequality between students in rural areas and those in towns. Previous studies have mentioned the challenge of internet connections, electricity and lack of infrastructure that supports online learning (Drane*et al.,* 2020; Owusu *et al*., 2020 and others mentioned above). However, their findings do not show which of the countries have been affected more with these challenges. Learning inequality arises when one area of the country group of the population can have access to education and others cannot (Caoa*et al.*, 2020). This study contributed to the existing literature by establishing the impact of COVID 19 on the inclusive education in the higher learning institutions.

METHODOLOGY
This study analysed the impact of COVID-19 pandemic on the inclusive learning process in the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. The following methods and techniques were used to collect and analyse the data.

Research approach and design
This research was guided by the pragmatism research philosophy as indicated by our thrust to understand how covid–19 pandemic has affected the inclusive learning processes of students in the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. In this study, the researchers adopted a quantitative research design. Quantitative research design has been adopted in studies analysing the impact of covid -19 pandemic on the education (Daroedono*et al.*, 2020, Kapasiaa*et al.,* 2020 and Caoa*et al.*, 2020) This helped the researchers to establish the impact of covid–19 pandemic on the learning process of students in the higher learning institutions. Twesige*et al.* (2020) points out that if study requires the use of questionnaires, the quantitative research design is the best that suits such studies.

The study population was drawn from the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. According to the Higher Education Council (2020), there are 30 higher learning institutions in Rwanda. These include 2 public institutions and 28 private institutions. The target population of this study included students from different programs offered by the higher learning institutions in different campuses. A total population of 1170 students were selected from the 30 higher learning institutions. A stratified sampling technique was used in order to select the students from three clusters which were Kigali city, towns and rural areas.

Primary data was collected using closed ended questionnaires which were designed using a likert scale. The questionnaire was emailed to students through their head department and class representatives. With restricted movement to deliver the instrument and social distancing measure, online delivery was considered to be more useful as compared to other tools. A pilot study was conducted with students from the department of accounting to ensure the reliability of the instruments. The reliability was tested using a Cronbach alpha test. The test indicated an alpha of 87% which indicated the instruments were reliable and could be used to answer the study objectives.

The Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) was used for data entry. Descriptive data analysis was conducted using frequency tables, mean and standard deviation. While, inferential data analysis was conducted using ANOVA and the Kruskal Wallis Test. The ANOVA was done to test the significance of the impact of COVID-19 pandemic on the learning process of students in the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. Kruskal Wallis test was used to determine the areas that were most affected by the COVID – 19 pandemic and to test the significance of the challenges of COVID 19-pandemic on the student's online process.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
This section presents and discusses the results from the survey.

Table 1: Mode of Learning during the Covid – 19 Pandemics

Tools used in online learning	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Moodle online platform				22.0%	78.0%
Video conferencing	57.0%	15.2%	9.6%	8%%	10.3%
Moodle and Video conferencing	46.6%	22.7%	11.5%	18.2%	1.0%
What's-up groups			30.0%	65.0%	5.0%
What' sup and Moodle			35.6%	50.4%	14.0%

Source: Survey Data 2020

The results in table 1 show the mode of learning used by the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. Findings show that 100% agreed that they studied using an online Moodle platform, 72.2% of the students disagreed on the use of video conferencing in the learning process whereas 18.3% agreed that they used video conferencing during the study and 9.6% of the students were neutral. Furthermore, on the use of combination of Moodle and video conferencing to support the learning process, 69.3% of the students disagreed, 11.5% were neutral whereas 19.2% agreed that they used both Moodle platform and video conferencing during their learning process. The results further revealed 70% of students indicated the use of what's-up to support their learning process whereas 30% of the respondents were neutral. More still, the findings indicated 64.4% of the students agreed on the use of both Moodle and what's up to support their learning process.

The findings revealed that during the Covid -19 Pandemic, learning was shifted from the normal face to face classrooms to online classrooms using different learning platforms. This concurs with findings from previous studies. The study by Zhanga*et al.* (2020), Wargadinata*et al.* (2020) and Daniel (2020) show that covid – 19 led to a shift in the learning process from face to face to virtual classrooms. The findings further revealed that Moodle e-learning platform was the most used learning platform used by students during the learning process followed by what's-up. The findings revealed limited use of video conferencing in

the support of the learning process by students. Use of whatsapp has been very fundamental in sporting group discussion and interactive learning by students. Owusu *et al.* (2020) has also found the use of what's up in Ghana to support online learning through interactive learning and group discussion.

Table 2: Attendance of students

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Every day	309	28.1	28.1
	Once a week	348	31.6	59.7
	Twice a week	96	8.7	68.4
	Three times a week	25	2.3	70.6
	never attended	322	29.4	100
	Total	1100	100	

Source: Survey Data 2020

Table 2 shows how students were attending the online classes. Findings show that 28.1% of the students attended their online classes every day, 31.6% attended once a week, 8.7% attended twice a week, 2.3% attended three times a week whereas 29.4% never attended their online classes. The findings therefore revealed that covid – 19 have affected the students' attendance of classes as only 28.1% of the surveyed students managed to attend their classes on a daily basis. The findings concur with findings from previous studies. The study conducted by Daroedono*et al.* (2020), Caoa*et al.* (2020) and Kapasiaa*et al.* (2020) shows poor attendance of students on online learning. This does not only to low skills attained by the students, but it also leads to learning inequality within the students.

Table 3: Gadgets used by students during the online process

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Smart phone	646	58.7	58.7
	Laptops	263	23.9	82.6
	Laptop and smartphones	149	13.5	96.1
	IPad	39	3.5	99.7
	Internet Cafe	3	0.3	100
	Total	1100	100	

Source: Survey Data 2020

In table 3, the respondents were asked the tools they are using during the online learning. Findings show that 58.7% they use smartphones, 23.9%

they have laptops, 13.5% have both laptops and smartphones, 3.5% have IPads whereas 0.3% of the students go to internet café in order to access online learning. Findings revealed that majority of the students only access the learning platform through the use of smartphones. Although this may look to be good news that majority of students can at least access the learning platform through the use of their platform, However, the challenge with the use of smartphone is that it is complicated for students to attempt assignments especially assignments that are quantitative. This further affects the quality of learning process of students. Huston et al (2020) asserts that lack of gadgets impinges on the student's learning process.

Table 4: Challenges students face during Online Learning

			Location		
			Rural Areas	**Towns**	**City of Kigali**
Challenges faced during the online learning	Lack of computers	% within Location	75.60%	18.00%	6.40%
	Lack of enough skills to learn online	% within Location	75.00%	65.00%	70.00%
	Lack of electricity	% within Location	60.00%	25.00%	15.00%
	Home environment was not conducive	% within Location	65.00%	70.20%	65.8.0%
	lack of internet data	% within Location	50.90%	36.80%	12.30%
	poor internet connections	% within Location	79.60%	41.10%	39.30%
	Studying without doing exams	% within Location	78.00%	62.00%	80.00%
	Learning infrastructure are not sufficient	% within Location	82.90%	69.40%	57.60%
Challenges faced during the online learning	Lack of computers				
		% within Location	75.60%	18.00%	6.40%
	Lack of enough skills to learn online				
	Lack of enough skills to learn online	% within Location	75.00%	65.00%	70.00%
	Lack of enough skills to learn online				
		% within Location	60.00%	25.00%	15.00%

Home environment was not conducive				
	% within Location	65.00%	70.20%	65.8.0%
lack of internet data				
	% within Location	50.90%	36.80%	12.30%
poor internet connections				
	% within Location	79.60%	41.10%	39.30%
Studying without doing exams				
	% within Location	78.00%	62.00%	80.00%
Learning infrastructure are not sufficient				
	% within Location	82.90%	69.40%	57.60%

Source: Survey Data

One of the key measures to combat the spread of covid – 19 was the closure of schools. After the closure of schools, teaching and learning was shifted from the normal classrooms to virtual classrooms using different technological tools. Table 4 shows the challenges that students face while studying online learning. Findings show that students faced numerous challenges while studying online. Findings revealed that 75.6% of students in rural areas have no access to the computers as compared to 18% and 6.4% of students in towns and Kigali city respectively. Furthermore, findings also revealed that students lacked enough skills to study online as reflected by 75%, 65% and 70% of students from rural areas, towns and cities of Kigali respectively. Results further showed that 60% of the students had a challenge of electricity in rural areas as compared to 25% and 15% of the students in towns and Kigali respectively. On the conduciveness of the home environment, results show 65% of the students from rural areas indicated that home environment was not conducive as compared to 65% and 70% of the students in towns and city of Kigali respectively. The results further showed that 50.9% of the students lacked internet data to follow the online learning as compared to 36.8 in towns and 12.3% in the city of Kigali. Another challenge that students faced while studying online is the

poor internet connections. Findings show that 79.6% of the students in the rural areas are affected by poor internet connections as compared to 41.1% and 39.3% of students in towns and cities of Kigali. Both Summative and formative examinations are tools used to assess the learning status of students. In order to combat the spread of covid -19, social distancing measures were introduced. This led to the closure of schools and thus limiting students from being unable to sit for their exams. 78% of the students from the rural areas were concerned with studying without doing exams as compared with 62% from towns and 80% from the city of Kigal. Results further showed that the learning infrastructures were not sufficient to support effective learning by the students. This is evidenced by 82.2%, 69.4% and 57.6% of the students from the rural area, towns and city of Kigali respectively.

The findings revealed various challenges that affect students while studying online. These included lack of computers, lack of enough skills to study online, poor internet connections, lack of internet data, lack of learning from peers through group discussions, lack of face to face clarification, insufficient learning infrastructures like virtual laboratories and poor home learning environment. The findings conformed to the findings from the previous studies. The study conducted by Kapasiaa*et al* (2020) found that students face various challenges while studying online. Similar finding is seen in the studies conducted by (Drane*et al*., 2020, Owusu *et al*., 2020 and Abidah*et al.*, 2020).

Table 5: Ranks of the most affected students

	Location	N	Mean Rank
Challenges faced during the online learning	Rural Areas	135	189.44
	Towns	94	158.03
	City of Kigali	81	131.38
	Total	310	

Source: Survey Data 2020

Results in the table 5 show the most affected area during the online learning using the mean rank. The results show that students in rural areas face more challenges with online learning as compared to students in towns and cities of Kigali. This was due to poor internet connections, lack of internet data and unstable electricity. The findings concur with the findings from the previous studies. The study conducted by Caoa*et al.* (2020) shows that students in rural areas are more marginalised with the

online learning as compared to students in towns and cities. Similar findings are seen in the study conducted by (Daroedono*et al.*, 2020). It is clear that covid has led to learning inequality among students where students in rural areas are the more affected. This conforms to the findings in the study conducted by (Doyle, 2020).

Table 6: Test Statistics[a,b]

	Challenges faced during the online learning
Chi-Square	21.049
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Location
Source Survey Data 2020

Table 6 shows the Kruskal Will's test of the significance of the challenges faced by students during the online learning in the period of covid – 19 pandemics. The results from the survey show lack of computers, lack of enough skills to study online, lack of internet data, poor internet connections, home learning environment, electricity, and change of academic calendar are statistically significant the effective learning process of the students based on the location of the students.

Table 7: Significance test of the impact of covid -19 on the students learning process using ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Reduction in the maintenance costs	Between Groups	66.726	2	33.363	27.74	0
	Within Groups	369.223	1097	1.203		
	Total	435.948	1099			
affected the quality of learning	Between Groups	6.5	2	3.25	3.591	0.029
	Within Groups	277.836	1097	0.905		
	Total	284.335	1099			
lack of face to face clarification	Between Groups	22.301	2	11.15	9.31	0
	Within Groups	367.686	1097	1.198		
	Total	389.987	1099			
Studying without	Between	3.7	2	1.85	1.292	0.276

examination	Groups					
	Within Groups	439.771	1097	1.432		
	Total	443.471	1099			
Promoted independent learning	Between Groups	18.185	2	9.092	6.437	0.002
	Within Groups	433.635	1097	1.412		
	Total	451.819	1099			
Lack of group discussion	Between Groups	4.257	2	2.128	1.973	0.141
	Within Groups	331.192	1097	1.079		
	Total	335.448	1099			
Unable to do research	Between Groups	5.181	2	9.012	8.891	0.003
	Within Groups	379.224	1077	1.723		
	Total	384.405	1099			
Unable to do Internship	Between Groups	6.349	2	12.01	11.992	0
	Within Groups	831.92	1097	1.123		
	Total	838.269	1099			
Covid -19affected the academic calendar	Between Groups	39.667	2	19.833	22.496	0
	Within Groups	270.669	307	0.882		
	Total	310.335	309			

Source: Survey Data 2020

Table 1 shows the impact of covid -19 on the learning process of students. The results show that covid -19 has had numerous impacts on the students' learning process. Findings show that covid -19 have had a significant impact on the maintenance costs for the students, face to face clarification, quality of learning, independent learning, students' internship, students' research and the academic calendar as evidenced by P-values of less than 5%. The results concur with findings from the previous studies. The study conducted byZhanga et al. (2020) and Daniel (2020) shows that this has led to a shift from the face to face to online learning which has affected the students' learning process. Furthermore, the study by Daroedono et *al. (*2020); Kapasiaa *et al. (*2020); Caoaet *al.* (2020), Calhoun (2020); Drane*et al. (*2020); Owusu *et al*. (2020), show that covid 19 led to a change in the academic calendar for the students more especially students in the final year. The study by Naciri (2020), Chan (2020) and Abidah et al. (2020) show that covid -19 pandemic has affected the quality of learning more especially to students doing science

courses due to lack of virtual laboratories, library, cardeva in addition, the findings from the survey show that covid -19 has had impacts on the group discussion and examinations. The findings contradict with the results from the previous studies. Studies by Drane*et al.* (2020) Owusu *et al*. (2020) Karalis, (2020) Brown *et al.,* (2020) show that learning from peers through group discussion is very fundamental in the learning process of students. More still, both formative and summative assessments are very critical in the learning process of the student.

CONCLUSION

The study analysed the impact of covid – 19 pandemics on the learning process of students in the higher learning institutions in Rwanda. The findings revealed the covid -19 pandemic has had numerous impacts on the students learning process in Rwanda. The impacts of covid – 19 pandemics on the learning process of students in the higher learning process are both positive and negative but the negatives outweigh the positive impacts. The negative impacts of covid – 19 pandemics include learning inequality among students, poor attendance of classes, lack practical skills for courses that require the use of laboratories which affected the quality of learning skills acquired by students, lack peer learning due to limitation of group work due social distancing measures. The positive impact of covid -19 on the learning process of students in the higher learning institutions included promotion of independent learning by the students; maintenance cost of students during the learning process and improved the technological skills of the students. Furthermore, the findings revealed students in rural areas were affected more with the challenges of internet connections, internet data and electricity as compared to students in towns and city of Kigali.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Closing the learning inequality gap that has been created among the students in towns, cities of Kigali and those from the rural areas due to poor internet connections in the rural areas. Also, a need to close the inequality gap between students who have access to the learning gadgets and those who cannot be able to access such gadgets.

Education institutions should train the students on online learning. A module should be introduced in the first year that introduces to students the online learning. More to that online learning should be part and partial

of the education institutions. Part of their modules should be delivered online and other parts face to face.

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